PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

Association of History Teachers

OF THE

Middle States and Maryland

Number 23 **1925**

Our Revolutionary Debt to France — *J. H. Latané*
Some of The Fruits of Historical Study — *J. H. Robinson*
Columbia Courses in Contemporary Civilization — *H. J. Carman*
Introduction to College Work — *George Boas*
The Method Alternatives in Twelfth Grade Work — *Frances Morehouse*
Present-Day Trend in Citizenship Training — *F. A. Rexford*

MEETINGS

PHILADELPHIA NEW YORK

Price One Dollar

PROPERTY OF THE LIBRARY OF THE FEB 2 1926 NEW YORK WOMAN'S

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

Association of History Teachers

OF THE

Middle States and Maryland

Number 23 **1925**

Our Revolutionary Debt to France — *J. H. Latané*

Some of The Fruits of Historical Study — *J. H. Robinson*

Columbia Courses in Contemporary Civilization — *H. J. Carman*

Introduction to College Work — *George Boas*

The Method Alternatives in Twelfth Grade Work — *Frances Morehouse*

Present-Day Trend in Citizenship Training — *F. A. Rexford*

MEETINGS

PHILADELPHIA NEW YORK

Price One Dollar

Digitized by the Internet Archive
in 2026

https://archive.org/details/annual-proceedings-and-bulletin-mscss_1925_23

CONTENTS

		Page
Philadelphia—Bryn Mawr Meeting, May 1–2, 1925		1
I.	Present-Day Trend in Citizenship Training, and What New York is Trying to Do, *Mr. Frank A. Rexford*	2
II.	Discussion of Mr. Rexford's Paper, *Mr. Edwin Adams*	6
III.	Paper, *Miss Kathryn E. C. Carrigan*	8
IV.	Method Alternatives in Twelfth Grade Work, *Miss Frances Morehouse*	12
V.	Our Revolutionary Debt to France, *Professor John H. Latané*	28
VI.	The Columbia Course in Contemporary Civilization, *Professor Harry J. Carman*	40
VII.	Introduction to College Work (A Course for Freshmen in Johns Hopkins University) *Professor George Boas*	48
IX.	Discussion of Orientation Courses, *Professor Irving S. Kull*	56
New York Meeting, November 28, 1925		58
X.	Shall College Entrance Credit be Given to Secondary School Courses in Social Science, *Professor Adam Leroy Jones*	58
XI.	Discussion of the same topic, *Mr. Horace Kidger*	66
XII.	Some of the Fruits of Historical Study, *Professor James Harvey Robinson*	74
XIII.	Treasurer's Report	79
XIV.	Report of Membership	80
XV.	Constitution	81
XVI.	Officers of the Association	83
XVII.	List of Members	84
XIX.	List of Subscribing Libraries	102

PHILADELPHIA MEETING

May 1–2, 1925

HOTEL SYLVANIA, BALL-ROOM

Friday Afternoon, May 1, at 3:30 o'clock.

JOINT SESSION with the History Club of the Higher Schools of Philadelphia.

GENERAL TOPIC—*"Citizenship Training"*.

a. *"Present-Day Trend in Citizenship Training, and What New York is Trying to Do"*, Mr. Frank A. Rexford, Assigned to the Supervision of Civics in New York City.

Discussion led by Mr. Edwin Adams, Principal of the Philadelphia Normal School.

Paper by Miss Kathryn E. C. Carrigan, Atlantic City High School.

b. *"Method Alternative in Twelfth Grade Work"*, Miss Frances Morehouse, Department of History, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Discussion led by Dr. J. Lynn Barnard, Director of Social Studies, Department of Public Instruction, Commonwealth of Pennsylvania.

Friday Evening, May 1, at 6:30 o'clock, at Annual Dinner.

ADDRESS—*"Our Revolutionary Debt to France"*, Dr. John H. Latané, Johns Hopkins University.

Saturday Morning, May 2, at 10.15 o'clock, Taylor Hall, Bryn Mawr College.

GENERAL TOPIC—*Orientation Courses: Their Purpose and Possibilities.*

a. *"The Columbia Course in Contemporary Civilization"*, Professor Harry J. Carman, Columbia University.

b. *"Introduction to College Work"* (*A Course for Freshman in the Johns Hopkins University.*) Professor George Boas.

Discussion, Professor Irving S. Kull, Rutgers College.

THE TREND OF CIVICS TEACHING AND WHAT NEW YORK CITY IS ATTEMPTING

A quarter of a century ago some of us took a short course called Civil Government. Some of us mastered this subject in our high school days, a few made use of it as a snap course toward college graduation, and many of us were not even exposed to governmental study in any form except that incidentally connected with our study of history.

For those who did spend any time in school in this field the ability to commit to memory certain facts and statements together with salaries, fees, and length of term of office of the principal governmental officials was sufficient ground for granting the coveted credit—and that was about all. Government, like astronomy, was something distant, something to learn certain facts about; it was not considered any of the ordinary person's business. Demagogues were taken for granted and as Hervey Miller says, "youngsters went to bed on the eve of their twenty-first birthday boys innocent of the simplest ideas of government and awoke the next morning voters with the responsibilities of citizenship thrust on their shoulders over night".

In the last few years there has come a change. Events connected with the world war brought vividly to one's attention the fact that there were a few things that our young people, and older people as well, had not learned about their government. We were distressed, shocked and surprised. There was much talk about disloyalty and failure in duty. There was a good deal of hysteria all over the country. Charles Gray Shaw used to say that in times of catastrophe "some people scream, a few folks swear, and philosophers think." And so if we are willing to admit our legislators in the various states into the category of philosophers we can charge them with giving thought to the matter of government teaching and in a great many states passing laws making the study of government in the schools compulsory.

In the State of New York the legislature passed such a law in 1918. It provided that civics should be taught in the first year of the course of all high schools of the State. At first the minumum time to be spent in this study was two year hours—two periods a

week for a year or four periods a week for a half-year. Recently the State Education Department has increased the time requirement to two and one-half year hours which means five periods a week for one-half year or three periods a week for one half year and two for the other half of the first year. In the City of New York this meant that a new required subject must be put into operation for twenty thousand first-year high school pupils.

Many conferences were held with superintendents and other public officials, each of them netting about the same result; i. e., that if we were going to have civics amount to anything (and all agreed that it should) we must provide a different brand of government teaching from what had been offered in the past.

All the teachers who would naturally be assigned to this work were called together for an experience meeting. There was frank and open discussion. In a meeting of nearly two hundred teachers many inclinations will usually develop, as did in this case, but on one point all agreed, and that was that whatever we did in the line of civics teaching we would try to make alive. It was brought out that we were located in the heart of a wonderful civic laboratory, and that it was our privilege and our duty to make the most of it. It was decided that we should take up the *functions* of government. and that we would attempt to make it an intimate rather than a distant study—concrete rather than abstract, and participatory rather than observational. A committee of these teachers immediately set to work to formulate a syllabus based on human needs and relationships—political, ethical, social and physical. The syllabus which this committee evolved was, from our standpoint, a wonderful piece of work and is in use today practically in its original form.

Whenever a new course is promulgated in any department of education there is a great scurry for text books which "cover the course". Often in higher education the book is parent to the course. Some author has developed a new line of thought in the professor's mind and he says "I'll give a course." The catalogue will read something like this: "Social Dermatology—30 hours—Professor Smith, etc., etc.—Brown's *Psychology of the Cuticle* will be used as a point of departure for the discussions of the group who elect this course." High school teachers are nothing if not collegiate. We thought of course there must be a text book.

We always had had text books. We ardently sought the book to meet our needs. Many fine books on civics and community civics were read and appreciated but none seemed to meet the requirements as we saw them. So we decided to try it with no text book as such but to use anything and every thing available for reference purposes.

In order that we might all be thinking along the same lines, to orient ourselves in the new work, so to speak, twenty-five teachers and superintendents were each asked to write out for the rest of the teachers some phase of city government as it functions for the individual. These civic articles or monographs, as they came to be known, were typewritten and sent to each teacher of the subject. The editors of the OUTLOOK, thinking they recognized worth in these civic monographs, made a proposition to each teacher which was accepted and they appeared in that magazine serially during 1919. They have since been translated into Japanese and Yiddish and reproduced in Braille.

In order that we might have access to the doings of the different city departments, every department head was asked to provide us with all available information in connection with his work. This was cheerfully done. Mr. Dorsey W. Hyde, at that time Municipal Librarian of the City of New York, worked tirelessly to collect these civic libraries and assisted in distributing them so that each high school library was generously provided with a well stocked civic shelf. In the Municipal Library a room was set aside for the use of civics teachers and pupils.

Even with the wonderful array of reference material which was placed at our disposal and with freedom of access to all city, state, and federal bureaus for teachers and pupils, we felt that we were not yet close enough to the government to teach its functions intelligently. So we called on these same department heads again. We told them that we wanted them to meet with us as teachers and tell us about their jobs and give us the human side of their bureaus and departments. They did come and they still do. We feel that these meetings with the people who are actually in governmental authority have done more to adjust our ideas than any other one thing. The City fathers on the other hand have come to realize that it is helpful to have their departments discussed understandingly at the breakfast tables of twenty thousand

families. They tell us we are helping and that there is an increased intelligent interest in government in our city. We are often asked if these conferences between city department heads and teachers do not develop into political propaganda meetings for ambitious politicians. The answer is unqualifiedly "no".

We try to teach something every day. In order to focus our thought we worked out lessons, each being given a specific job and carrying out a central thought. The good the teachers derived from these plans was in the making of them. They were published serially in our high school magazine and are often an aid to young teachers in making other and better plans.

The first mountain that confronted us when we began to teach without textbooks was the matter of assignment of things for pupils to do. Since we started out with the participatory idea we must find the ways in which children could rightly be asked to take part in governmental affairs. Every civics teacher made a study of this situation and tried out such things as were thought practicable. The results of these experiments were collected and assorted under the various topics we were studying. Then the civics teachers of each high school, working as a group, took the information gained and worked out revisions which were presented and discussed at a general conference of all civics teachers. The result of their co-operative labors appeared in the form of a syllabus entitled "Suggested Civic Activities for Pupils". This syllabus is undergoing revision and always will be, we hope.

We are attempting to project our civics teaching into the home life of our pupils. If the results of our efforts do not get beyond the classroom we are failing. Occassionally we find that a child has taught a civics lesson at home. For instance; one father writes that his daughter has shown him that he should not dodge jury duty and promises not only to reform himself but to take it up with his acquaintances who are subject to the same practice.

All civicly minded groups of individuals in the city co-operate helpfully whenever opportunity offers. Nearly sixty such societies and organizations work with us in one way or another continually. One group of interested citizens has formed the Co-operation-in-Government Committee, whose excuse for being is to encourage and reward exceptional student participation in government.

Is it hard work? Yes, the civics teachers are a very hard working group. They believe in their jobs and nothing is too hard for them to try. In our large double-session schools it is difficult to find time and opportunity for teachers and pupils to take observation trips. We are always handicapped for want of more and more reference material. It is understood that the results of the type of teaching we are attempting will not be felt in any great measure until the next generation but the kindly encouragement we receive on all hands is most helpful and if you come to visit us as we want you to do, you'll find us smiling.

FRANK A. REXFORD

DISCUSSION OF PAPER DELIVERED BY DR. FRANK REXFORD

Mr. Chairman and Members of the Association:

It has been my good fortune to be able to follow carefully the development of the program in citizenship training in the New York schools from the time of its first introduction. It has been a great pleasure to see the strides which have been made in this field under Dr. Rexford's direction. We, in Philadelphia, have been following his work closely. We have been able to secure most of the pamphlets to which he has referred. I can heartily commend them to any of you who are interested in this field of work.

The development of the work in citizenship training in New York is closely parallelled by a similar movement in Philadelphia. The work was begun in an experimental way in 1911 in the Philadelphia School of Pedagogy under the direction of Dr. J. Lynn Barnard. At the same time in the William Penn High School an experimental course was introduced in the ninth year under the direction of Miss Jessie Evans. The present course of study in civics now in operation in the Philadelphia schools is the direct outcome of the result of these experiments.

The Philadelphia course of study in civics makes provision for definite citizenship training beginning in the first grade and running through the three years of the junior high school. It is concluded

by a course in the problems of democracy in the last year of the senior high school. The course itself is based on the belief that underlying good citizenship must be good morality. Beginning in the first grade, the course provides for training in habits of right social relationship. The study of the civic virtues upon which this is based is cumulative, the course being so organized as constantly to provide opportunities for the application of the several civic virtues to concrete life situations. The more definite concrete civic material, which is introduced in grade 3 and continues through the grades, parallelling and constantly related to the civic virtues, aims to develop the ideal of service growing out of the ideas of dependence and interdependence and the reciprocal duties of the members of the community. The work which is usually referred to as Community Civics and deals with the elements of community welfare and the efforts of organized society to achieve these ends is treated in grades 7 and 8. In grades 6 and 9 provision is made for definite work in guidance; here the emphasis is placed largely on educational guidance. The work in the twelfth year dealing with the problems of democracy is primarily concerned with the adding to the other civic ideals that of the responsibility of leadership.

As in the case of the New York schools, this work was introduced by means of a carefully planned campaign, which might be expected to insure a right attitude on the part of the teachers in regard to new work which was being given to them and also to prepare them for the work whicht hey were about to undertake. A number of grade conferences were held to make sure that the teachers would be familiar with the content of the course. These conferences included demonstration lessons and discussions of problems of method. In the case of teachers who were responsible for the work in the higher grades dealing with problems of guidance and with the political organization of the community, conferences were arranged with the Mayor of the City. The teachers were addressed by the heads of the several City departments. Visits were made to institutions in and about the City and to the great industrial plants. An association of civics teachers was formed for the purpose of studying civic problems and collecting illustrative material which would be helpful in the conduct of the work.

There is constant danger that work of the sort which we have just been considering may become formalized. In order to guard against this, the Department of Superintendence has been active in providing such helps for teachers through demonstration lessons, conferences, and excursions as will tend to keep constantly before the teacher that which is best both in content and method.

There is an element in citizenship training to-day which seems to me to be a most important tendency. I refer to the whole character development movement. It is true that this has been present in some places from the beginning. There is, however, a definite tendency evidenced in the courses of study and in general programs for citizenship training to recognize the importance of training in civic virtues and to include as of primary importance among the objectives of civics instruction that of the development of good moral character.

EDWIN W. ADAMS

Mr. Chairman and Members of the Association:

I am asked to contribute to this discussion to-day by telling you something of citizenship training through community civics in New Jersey in general, and in Atlantic City in particular.

A great many of you probably know that New Jersey has within the past few months issued a bulletin, through the State Department of Public Instruction, on community civics. I had the pleasure of being a member of the General Committee charged with reorganizing and re-writing the Syllabus for Social Studies for the Secondary Schools of the State, and this monograph just issued is the first fruits of our labor. We do not claim anything extremely original or unique for our work; in fact, I think you will find it much like others that have appeared recently.

We have tried to give a rather detailed outline of what we consider minimum essentials, and also to give opportunity for a much greater amount of material to be used, wherever possible; all the time keeping in mind the peculiar requirements of New Jersey Schools and the State Law which prescribes the placement and the minimum amount of time for the subject.

The course, as evolved through various conferences and much study during a year and a half, is called in general Civics of Society, and is divided into four units, namely—Community Civics, Governmental Civics, Economic Civics and Vocational Civics, any one of which furnishes a complete ten weeks work. All four may be covered by any school devoting a whole year to the subject, or any two by a school giving only twenty weeks' to the work, the two chosen depending entirely on local conditions in the Community and the State Law. Since citizenship training is the object of a community civics course, we recognize that for some aspects of the work, the material will be the same from Hoboken to Cape May, but other parts of the subject matter will depend on whether the chief industry of the community is raising sweet potatoes, refining Standard Oil, making Victrolas, or managing a Boardwalk hotel.

What the Committee aimed at was a very flexible outline which would help each teacher solve the problems in his own particular school.

In Atlantic City, every 9th year pupil studies community civics five times a week for a year. We use a text book, a loose-leaf note book and a current periodical. In addition, besides the text book in the hands of each pupil, he has access to ten or twelve other texts at all times, a reference library of 7,000 volumes and eighty periodicals. Each pupil spends forty minutes in required supplementary reading in the library, under supervision of a Social Science teacher, each week.

Our theory is that we learn by doing; we learn to become good citizens, by actually performing the functions of a citizen under expert guidance; consequently, we give our pupils as much to do in the way of practical work as possible.

We use the School Hand book as a text book with the 9th year-pupils in September, on the assumption that good citizens observe rules and regulations, and ignorance of the law is no excuse.

We use the community civics classes in the beginning of the term to discuss auditorium etiquette by encouraging free discussion, in order to formulate some standards of conventional behavior in public assemblies. This in our community is quite important since 14% of Atlantic City's population is foreign-born and 21% negro.

We have organized trips to City Water Works, Sewage Disposal Plant, Juvenile Court, City Commission Meeting, Electric Light Plant, Fire Department Training Station, Light House and Coast Guard Station, a large Boardwalk Hotel, a Newspaper Plant, a Milk Supply Station, The County Home and Tubercular Hospital, Naturalization Court, and other such institutions. Only one pupil from each class is permitted to go on a trip, and he is held responsible for giving all the information to the class, which has previously studied the history of that particular institution and is prepared to question for details as to its actual workings.

Frequently, the pupils dramatize their information and present a Naturalization Court, a Juvenile Court, or a City Commission meeting, — even to the entire school. One teacher's classes constructed two houses in miniature to show the difference between the good and the poor citizens' homes. They investigate the work of Civic Clubs by interviews with their officers and report back to their classes the aims and achievements of the Chamber of Commerce, Kiwanis, Rotary, Lions, Knights of Columbus, Child Federation, Mothers' Congress and others.

They held election on election day after having had a primary and registration day, with ballots, booths, judges, clerks, and all the necessary parapharnalia, just as in the regular city election precincts.

If the pupils of one particular teacher are trying to carry out some plan in which they wish the co-operation for the other classes, a speaker is chosen and trained by his own group to go to other groups to present the project and secure their help.

We have student advisors in the cafeteria during the lunch period to see that their own class members follow all regulations about returning trays, putting back stools under tables, keeping in line, etc. This work is considered a citizenship job by the school, and so the Faculty Advisors are social science teachers.

All citizenship committees of the school, in fact, are under the direction of the head of the Social Science department and this helps to impress the pupils with the idea that good citizenship is the ultimate goal of all social science teaching. For example, through the Attendance Committee which relieves session teachers of the responsibility of keeping attendance and tardiness records, collects the slips daily, and takes them to the office, makes out the per-cent

average for each room each month and records it on a graph not only for the month but for the year, for the whole school, we try to show that punctuality and promptness are prime requisites of a good citizen.

Our community civics pupils are also receiving valuable citizenship training in our vocational guidance work. Our social science teachers have made a vocational survey of Atlantic City, so we know what material is available. The pupils in each class group themselves, according to their predilections, and choose a leader of their group. He confers with the teacher to find out the possibilities of gathering information in the city on their chosen vocation. Then certain members of the group go out and from adults in the community collect facts concerning the qualifications necessary, advantages or disadvantages, opportunity for advancement, training, salary, etc. Finally, the group organizes the material and chooses a member to present it to the class, with the idea of persuading some uninterested pupil to select that special line of work.

We also keep a card for each Community Civics pupil on which he records his academic grades each month, and on which his teacher records her estimate of him in application, initiative, self control, responsibility, punctuality, co-operation and courtesy. This we make use of in recommending him to the school for some civic service. Each pupil, at the close of the year, may be recommended for service points, not to exceed eight in any one year. These include points not only for membership in societies, office holding, or athletics, but also for any notable civic service in the school community. The pupil who has received twenty such points at the close of his Senior year receives a gold Service Pin from the school.

From these facts, perhaps you can see we are teaching competition but also co-operation; responsibility, but also facts to make that responsibility function intelligently; independence and initiative, but not radical individuality; leadership as well as the ability to follow; consideration for the rights of others; respect for others' property; acknowledgment of the achievements of others and the desire to emulate them;—all of which you will concede are characteristics valuable to possess.

We feel that we are teaching the basic principles of community, state and national life— that we are studying the elements of our political, social, and economic development—as much as a ninth year pupil can assimilate, but we are also doing much more. All is fish that comes to our net, and we are making use of every phase of our school life to direct our pupils into action that will form habits of an honest, upright man who feels he is responsible for a share in the community in which he lives, and who is intelligent enough to do his part wisely and well in co-operation with his fellow citizens.

KATHRYN E. C. CARRIGAN

THE METHOD ALTERNATIVES IN TWELFTH GRADE WORK

Two methods of teaching the social sciences in the twelfth year are followed in American high schools. There is the traditional one of presenting an organized survey of the simpler elements of economics, sociology and government, after which an "application" is made in the shape of "problems", which involve the facts and principles supposed to have been mastered by the students. The other method reverses this process, and presents the problems to the students first, leading them from a realization of the difficulties facing modern society, to a study of the principles and facts that pertain to those difficulties. In both cases the students become acquainted with the programs for solution which are offered by different schools of thinkers in these fields.

The problem approach is widely used in eighth and ninth grade community civics, and some teachers consider its repetition in the twelfth grade an economical procedure, since the students need only to extend a method of study with which they are already familiar. The advocates of the subject survey method say, on the other hand, that students leaving the high school are entitled to a comprehensive and organized survey of the related social studies, before they enter upon the active duties of citizens. The purpose of this paper is not to condemn nor to advocate one or the other of

these methods, but to set forth the nature and the advantages of both, that teachers may be helped to see each clearly and to choose or to combine their methods of teaching intelligently.

Elimination of Irrelevant Factors and Phrases.

Before beginning our inquiry on this main point, however, it is necessary to put out of the way certain confusing words, ideas and claims, with which the issue is often clouded. The first of these beclouding factors is immediate and apparent success. This is a hard saying, for the pragmatic test has so entered into our thinking that our first and most natural impulse with regard to any method is to ask whether it works or not; and specially to note its effect on the students. And we could tell truly what degree of success attends the practice of any method, apart from the personality of the teachers practicing it, this would be a true test of its value and validity. We can not. That educational fad was never evolved which was so absolutely insane that it could not evoke, in the hands of its devotees, an apparently sincere and a certainly enthusiastic response on the part of the students. A skilled, industrious, determined teacher, filled with the conviction that his method is at least the true one, can make any method work to the delight of the onlookers, and to the entire satisfaction of the histrionic instincts of the students. Whatever the method, personal vividness and interest on the part of the teacher seems to be the one essential condition for success in teaching. If teachers could be produced who could develop the requisite amount of conviction and force in presentation and leadership, yet who knew nothing of method, we might dismiss our method problem with a wave of the hand. But this we cannot do. A method of some kind each teacher must have, and his immediate success in teaching seems to bear a closer relation to his conviction that his method is the right one, than to any intrinsic character in the method. Teachers in the same school, using diametrically opposite methods, achieve equal success in their classes; their students work equally hard, and are equally good advertisements for their respective teachers. Old-fashioned and new-fangled devices, conservative and ultra-progressive teachers alike succeed in producing apparently good results. By their fruits, some day, they may be judged:

but at present we have no means of judging that fruit, since it can not ripen for a long time to come.

Another set of misleading ideas is connected with so-called "psychological" teaching. The problem approach has been called the "psychological", as opposed to the "logical approach." Nothing could be more fallacious than such a distinction. The problem approach is just as logical as the subject-matter approach, provided its premises are accepted and its steps proceed in a reasonable way; and the subject-survey approach is just as psychological as the problem approach, provided its steps are possible and economical to a normal human mind. Any method that enables a normal human mind to master knowledge in a natural and not too difficult way, is a psychological method, although psychologists may not be able to explain why it gives this power. There are more things in heaven and earth, Horatio, than are yet accounted for by your psychology. And to deny to the problem method, based as it is on definite premises and proceeding in regular order to a recognized end, the adjective "logical", is to deny an obvious characteristic.

Still another misused term is the word "scientific". Every method used may claim, by an application of some acknowledged characteristic of scientific method, to be "a scientific method". Socrates in the streets of Athens used a scientific method; medieval schoolmen revelled in scientific methods, although they did not apply them to any practical end; alchemists invented new scientific methods, which chemists afterward adopted; every new school of thought in its turn fondly imagines itself to be at last truly scientific, and often does in fact add some new wrinkle to the mass of possible scientific procedure. Both of the methods considered in this paper may be highly scientific, and both may be so misused as to break every rule of scientific procedure. "Scientific" is too general a term, too multitudinous in its range of possible meanings and applications, to be used with confidence as a categorical term. It is rather an adjective which is useful as a measure of excellence and a badge of validity, than as a distinguishing classification.

The Nature of the Problem Approach.

This approach and method uses and illustrates an old educational slogan in that it travels from the known to the unknown, by enlarging the social consciousness of the student. If logically ar-

ranged and presented, the problems are such as grow naturally out of the life and environment of the class. The process presents an egocentric world, in which inquiry travels outward in a constantly enlarging shaft of light, such as a small bright lantern casts upon the darkness of night. The student perceives the world from his own point of view, seeing near objects large and remote ones more dimly, if at all. He has a perspective of society, comparable to that perspective of the news of which Joseph Pulitzer used to talk, and which was illustrated in his newspapers. The students' interest passes from things immediately concerned with his own life, easily and naturally, to whose which are remote. He goes from known to unknown, from obvious to obscure, from simple to intricate.

The problem approach gives, then, an egocentric, successively more socialized conception of the world, as the best idea of the world for the young people concerned. It selects from the multitude of questions that confront thinking people, those which seem most important to the teacher; or, if the teacher be one of the currently elect, those which seem most important to the students; or, if the teacher be a timid wight or a busy one, those elucidated in the textbook used. In any case, the principle of selection currently advocated by problem method exponents is a quantitative one. Those problems are to be considered which are encountered most often, visibility being considered the test of importance. Such problems as have high visibility, that is, such as appear oftenest in the newspapers, books and magazines, such as are now thrust most often on public consciousness, are ranked as most worthy of detailed study by the young people about to become active citizens.

Notice the immediate and practical view of the world which this approach gives. It is in a high degree natural for people to see the world from their own point of view, with themselves and their generations as the center from which the phenomena of the universe radiate in lines of decreasing relevency from the observer and student. This is why proponents of the problem method claim that their method is a "psychological" one. It follows the line of least resistence in strengthening the natural tendency of human beings to look at time and space and all that in them is, from their own home town. Those problems, then, which they and their contemporaries see most clearly and talk about

most, are unquestioningly listed in the curriculum as the ones to be studied.

Having selected a number of problems, these are taken up one by one. A teacher versed in the method secures from his students, by that method of suggestion which involves a tacit conspiracy, between teacher and students that the students will ask the questions that the teacher wants asked, an appropriate set of inquiries about which the study may be organized. The students are then set to work to find out facts about the "problem", which will make them capable of discussing it intelligently and perhaps of arriving at a tentative solution. The teacher tries to secure, and indeed often does secure, a very vivid picture in the minds of the students, of the situation involved.

And this picture is a steriopticon picture. It has depth, perspective—the amount of depth and perspective depending, of course, upon the time spent on the study, the amount and character of material on hand for reading and observation, the mental calibre of the students, and above all on the catholicity and truth of the teacher's understanding of the matter. As the student in his growing understanding of the situation goes back of the surface into depth after depth of the background, he passes from an egocentric organization of the subject into another organization, which proves upon examination to be the orderly arrangement of items in the universe according to their relationship. In other words, with growing knowledge the student finds himself in a mass of systematized fact of which the self-centered onlooker can not possibly be conscious. If the process be carried far enough, the student finds that all knowledge exists in systems, in which there are yet great lacunae, but which already show the nature and basis of their relationships and great areas of relatively fixed knowledge.

Well taught young people with inquiring minds, with normal curiosity, at this point are liable to get out of hand in their eagerness to explore the illumitable fields of knowledge thus opened to their view; but they can not do this, for it is not the purpose of the problem course to elucidate the construction of the universe, but to draw upon that fathomless cistern only such facts as bear upon the practical problems being studied. After his glimpse of the riches of the subject, therefore, the student is pulled back by the necessities of time limitation, and his attention drawn again to

the purpose for which his foray was taken—the study of a problem that bears upon his own life and times.

By the time a number of problems have been studied, if the teacher be a good one and the students industrious and interested, some approach to a clear understanding of the subjects involved in the problem study should have been gained. It is impossible, for instance, for a live class of high school seniors to study the problems of Big Business, marketing and prices, transportation, conservation, taxation and distribution, socialism, organized labor, and international commerce (I have given a list of topics from a twelfth grade textbook arranged on the problem-approach plan), without gaining some knowledge of the subject of economics. The interlacing background of all these problems, interpreted by the teacher or the textbook author, should build up a cumulative framework of truth that in time stands back of the immediate problems considered, as the final and most valuable and permanent result of the problems work. It is final because it can not result from problem study until many approaches have won from irrelevency the whole theoretic background of the concrete manifestations; it is most valuable, because a general truth must always in a last analysis be more valuable than knowledge of a concrete situation; it is most permanent, because law must always be a more permanent thing than case.

It is as yet an open question whether this background of general truth is often reached in the twelfth grade through a problems approach. It should be, but no one knows how often it is. But if it be not, that is no argument in itself against the method; because the failure may be due to poor preparation of teachers, to a poor text, to lack of time—to many things. If, however, after an adequate trial extending through a number of years, it is found that students trained by this method have no functioning idea of the general facts of economic law and governmental principles, the method may fairly be considered to have failed. It is now too early to pronounce sentence.

The Advantages of the Problem Approach.

The teaching advantages of the problem approach have been set forth often and well, more especially in Part II of the 22nd Yearbook of the Society for the Study of Education. An unbiased

observer notes especially among them, that initial interest, if the teacher have ability at all, is liable to be keener than with a subject-survey approach. This is because of the personal twist, more aptly introduced when the learning process takes students from that which is familiar and near to that which is more remote. The personal point of view, the imminent question, the familiar illustration, occur more naturally. Contiguity and contemporaneousness play their enlivening part; the immediate surroundings of the learner may be made eloquent, his father's morning paper becomes a textbook, and his neighbors actors in the drama of enlightenment. He is a poor teacher indeed who can not arouse initial interest, which gives a good running start, by the problem method.

Another advantage is the possibility of teaching a few things thoroughly. If one belongs to that group of teachers who still believe in the blessedness of thoroughness, here is means to that end. The problem method gives a modern substitute for the European type of education, retaining the principle of intensive work upon a selection of topics rather than a comprehensive survey of the world we live in, but giving to the student modern and relevent problems of actual life rather than additional classics and mathematics and languages. The efficacy of type training is cited as justification for this selection and intense study; the advocates of the method think it better that students should know much of immigration, than that they should know a little of immigration, taxation, banking and tariff. They say that having mastered the technique of finding materials, understanding them and using them as a basis for making conclusions, students will afterward be able to use the same method in learning about any topic which they wish to investigate. They point out that it is obviously impossible to learn everything, and urge that what is taught should be so deeply impressed, so thoroughly canvassed, and so widely related, that it shall have some real effect upon the lives and opinions of the students in years to come.

A third advantage is the relevency of the material taught. It is possible to use problems occupying the front pages of the newspapers at the time, the subject of thoughtful articles in the magazines, the topics of new books. The boys and girls themselves recognize the useful character of the work, and feel that they belong

to the world, for they are thinking and talking about the same topics that grown people are discussing. The effect of this spiritual citizenship is a good one; it tends to minimize the preparatory function of school, and to emphasize the participatory function. School life ties up to out-of-school life, and the boys and girls attack their problems with a sense of reality and responsibility which often transcends what their parents are giving to the same questions.

In the fourth place this method gives to its students conversational skill, because it gives them practice in the use of technical vocabularies, confidence and interest in reading discussions of current topics, ability to talk about the world's business. They listen to lectures and debates with critical intelligence, and feel themselves quite capable of sitting in judgment upon the old fashioned ideas of their elders, acquired in a hoary past when schoolboys and schoolgirls did not delve in the archives to discover the true inwardness of the single tax and the divorce problem.

And conversational facility is no mean end to attain. Any educational system or method which gives to a hungry and bored world a yearly accretion of young people who can talk, easily and interestedly, about live world problems, is a good method, although it may not be the best method. Any method that tends to relieve the world of any proportion of its vapid-minded, empty-headed youth, chattering eternally about nothing, and substitute therefore young men and women who have learned that the affairs of the world are more interesting than their own for conversational purposes, is a boon to weary maturity, and a certain amount of sophomoric smartness may be excused as a pardonable concomitant of that largess. It is more than this: it is a definite social gain, for no one knows how much progress has not taken place because men and women in times past, interested in social problems and anxious to right wrongs, have not been able to exchange their ideas, make articulate their desires, and formulate their solutions, because they had not the vocabulary and the habit of discussion in the realm of social interest.

This result may be acquired equally by both methods, but it is probable that it results oftener from the problem approach than from the subject survey approach, because students by the latter method are brought up standing at the beginning before

greater and more difficult matters. Their task is a harder one, and they are commonly so absorbed in the effort to master the challenging material set before them, that they do not gain the glib facility which comes with much practice in the discussion of concrete situations.

What Is A Problem?

At this point, noting that in the students' picture of the world and its pressing affairs, problems are in the foreground and a mass of orderly, organized knowledge in the background of the learner's mind, it becomes relevant to our inquiry to ask, What is a problem?

Some teachers seem to think that a topic becomes a problem by the easy legerdemain of turning it around and attaching a question-mark. Of course this is not a problem. A problem is something more than a question regarding facts, simple or complex. The problems that face society, like the problems that face individuals, seem to be presentations of the necessity of choosing between two or more alternative courses of action. People are doing one thing, while others are urging them to do another; or they insist on doing what they are used to doing, although it hurts themselves and others too. When people hestitate between two or more courses of action, a problem is presented; and the choice made, if a wise one, depends on knowing the probable results of both courses. In the search for criteria to decide wise action, people are thrown back on the inevitable appeal to organized knowledge, or failing that on a theory of the relationships of things and people.

Suppose, for instance, that a few months ago a class were studying the problem of the disposition of the Isle of Pines. The teacher assigns this problem because he wants the class to form ideas of the larger problem of Imperialism, and finds it an approach that meets the popular shibboleth of newspaper obviousness. In the effort to deal rationally with this question, the student's mind most ultimately finds its way back into the perspective of "things as they are", to an orderly, chronological account of Cuban and United States history; to an organized knowledge of geography, of government, and of the economics of production, exchange and distribution. His appeal to history shows him that Cuba had the better precedents for ownership; his question to government shows

him that by those criteria which usually decide citizenship the Isle of Pines was really Cuban; and his question to economics brings him an explanation of those economic interests which prompted certain Americans to wish the Isle annexed to the United States. The students might, therefore, have anticipated the action of the Senate and adjudged the Isle of Pines rightly a part of Cuba. What had the students done? They had measured the alternatives by an ideal of justice, based on the systematic knowledge gained by their inquiries, and had found that one course of action came nearer the standard than the other; and they had given their verdict in favor of the one that seemed to them more just. In other words, before they could reach a decision they had to do three things:

1. Construct a mental picture of the actual situation of the Isle of Pines, and of its situation under both alternatives.
2. Construct an ideal of justice, relevant to this particular case, by which they might measure two courses of action.
3. Find out which situation agreed the more with the ideal of justice.

Now We See Why the Question Given Them Was a Problem.

A problem is a conflict between actual conditions and ideal conditions, or between action based on one set of standards and action based on a different set. Unless the conflict exists, there is no problem. It is no problem, for instance, to ask a class, what is the present condition of opium production and sale throughout the world? But it is a problem to ask them why England, usually so liberal, failed to co-operate with other liberal nations in the recent opium parley; for to answer that question must bring into the light the motives that have prompted the different countries concerned.

If this be the nature of the problem, and if before any problem can be tentatively solved there must be a comparison of at least two sets of conditions, of which one is usually an ideal one constructed in the minds of experts, we are led perforce to the basic inquiry of the advocate of the subject-survey approach:

Why not save time, and insure a more adequate and trustworthy basis for problem-solving, by building up the subject matter background first, and then posing the problems which seem most to need consideration? Before this question can be answered it is necessary to consider

The Character of the Subject-Survey Method.

Because it is an old method, familiar to all and used by many not because they believe in it but because they never heard of any other, the subject-survey method has not always been very intelligently used by teachers. Textbooks have often been poor, being synthetically put together rather than analytically, although the analytic method is clearly more appropriate. The process is one of giving the learner an objective, impersonal view of a department of human knowledge, having no obvious and immediate relation to himself. The learner sits in a reviewing stand and sees a panorama of fact and theory pass before him, the parade divided into labelled divisions each with its leaders, its marshalled forces, its beginning and its end. He has a chance to know the nature and organization of what passes before him.

This survey may be built up synthetically, or it may be reduced from an initial overview to whatever degree of detail time and circumstance allow. Our pedagogical forebears talked of "deductive" and "inductive" methods, which flattered their theory that they were teaching their students how to think, or that the students were discovering through their own mental processes what their ancestors worked out through many centuries of painful experimentation and some deliberate cerebration. If the process be one of an initial wide view, later focussed successively on logical divisions of the whole, with returning reintegrations which knit anew the detailed divisions to its whole, the students never lose that sense of the placement of the subject in the whole realm of human knowledge, which its first view as a whole subject in a whole world, gives them. They may study one part of the whole much more than others, but they always know that it is a part; and they have such an idea of its relative position and rank in the whole, as they can seldom and with difficulty win from a detailed study of a part which precedes the overview of the whole.

Using some principle of selection either by present or future importance or because of local interest or because of study materials at hand, the teacher presents certain aspects of the subject for detailed study, and at this point, or later, the work may become problematic. The students have their measuring rod in their mastery of the general facts of the subject; concrete cases may be held up to this standard, and if they fail to measure up the student knows he has a problem. He does not need to have problems manufactured for him, nor is it necessary for the teacher to present a situation and dogmatically label it a dilemma. The situation "shows up" as a problem because there is something atypical, abnormal and pathological about it, judged by the normal condition of things which the students know.

The Advantages of the Subject-Survey Method.

Of the advantages which inhere in the subject-survey method perhaps the greatest of all is its objectivity. The student is not emphasized, nor are his personal interests especially appealed to. Neither as an individual nor as the member of a social body, are his immediate perplexities treated as the most important thing in sight. He is on the other hand definitely subordinated to an organized mass of facts, which although closely related to him, derive little of their implied importance from that fact. There is no catering to instinctive self-centeredness in the subject-survey method; that method tends rather to subordinate the individual and his immediate group to the race, the small social unit to the larger, and passing events of general principles. It does help to make of boys and girls citizens of the world, for it centers interest in great matters. At a time when adolescence responds most eagerly to the epic, it presents matters of epic importance to it. It is a social rather than an individual method, and its frank concern with principles first and problems second is a challenge to large mindedness and foresightedness.

In the second place it gives to its students a more inclusive and proportioned view of the world and its affairs. Taxation, for instance, is to be presented not as an American problem, but as a universal human institution, which has a definite set of guiding principles and certain beneficient results. When the principles of taxation have been made familiar, it is found that the United States

does not practice them fully. Why not? That is a problem. How could the United States put them into practice? That is a program for solution. But having made this program for solution, the students find that such a program can not be put into effect, because the practice of other countries would interfere. And the class is brought back to general principles, and finds that it must consider taxation as a world's problem. Such a class is composed, in so far as its members are thinking at all, of citizens of the world. And there are many people who say that although ninth grade community civics may perhaps properly be confined to a selected list of concrete studies, that it is the right of the high school senior, before he assumes adult responsibilities to be given a comprehensive purview of the world he lives in.

Another result is the relatively dominant emphasis placed by the subject-survey method on normal aspects of life, as opposed to a typical and pathological aspects given prominence in the problem method. The healthy and orderly organization of society, and of economic life, is given primary and major place in a survey of the subject-matter of sociology, civics and economics. Deviations from this normal and healthy condition are not hidden, but they are treated definitely as abnormalities, as exceptions to what is to be expected. The effect of this emphasis upon the highest conception men have of human society and its institutions, rather than upon man's faulty approximation to it, or even man's departure from it, is that of implanting in the mind of youth a standard of efficient and righteous social practice. The world is for students so trained, first and habitually a place of orderly and moral aspect, and divergence from this norm a thing to be corrected. It is felt among the advocates of the subject-survey method, then, that if the object of high school social science is to produce citizens who will feel that it is their duty to correct what is wrong in the body social and politic, that this method is most likely to produce such citizens. The implication, explicit in the method, that evil is a variation from the normal, may serve partially to set right the twisted moral attitudes of the times. Certainly, say the subject-survey people, this is better than to imply by an overemphasis on problems, that conflict and injustice are the normal situations of mankind, the inevitable and continuing status of society.

Finally, advocates of the subject-survey approach point out that the conception of society based upon normal or ideal organization is of more permanent value than that based primarily upon present conflicts. All concrete conflict is a passing thing, but law endures. The youth trained to a full understanding of a few important present-day problems may find himself in later life stranded on a dry reef of the world's thought, before which the sea of progress rolls on to new lands of which he wots not. But he who has in his heart an ideal of human and economic relationships which transcends passing expression, may always apply his principles to whatever situation arises. He is equipped for the contingency of new issues.

In stating the case for the two methods in twelfth grade social study, the author of this paper knows that claims have been made on both sides which are not to be proved. Some claims may be fairly demonstrated, others rest upon outcomes so remote and intangible that a demonstration of their truth is impossible. This does not prove them false; it points out lacunae in our methods of testing. The author is not anxious to secure the adoption of either method, but is eager to convince teachers that the choice of a method may be made on clear-cut and tenable principles, rather than because it is either traditional and easy, or fashionable and popular. The adoption of a method because of imitation, emulation or revolt is sure to bring superficial work and unconvincing results.

The author is also aware that, being convinced that one of the two methods presented herewith is the better of the two for general use in the twelfth grade, because it is based on more intrinsic and permanent values than the other, her effort to present both sides fairly may have fallen short of that justice which was intended. Such failure is unintentional, and in any case may be explained by the exclusion of those factors which were named in the beginning as irrelevent in differentiation. In any case, it is felt that a certain necessary justice will have been rendered a method which has for a time been relegated to the limbo of old-fashioned ways, and none so poor to do it reverence. In any case, it has been a satisfaction to say a word for a way of teaching which looks to far results for its justification; which may not claim the support of that American business man who has so often been set up as the

judge of American education, but which appeals to scholars for its guide and inspiration; which can not offer so obvious and spectacular a harvest of youthful confidence, conversational ability, and practice in research, but which puts its faith in the object of securing, so far as possible, that all the children of all the people shall know the basic truths about human and economic relationships, in terms so general that they may outlast the questions that hedge the day. It has been a satisfaction to plead the case of a method which offers, perhaps, except where taught by unusual teachers, less of initial color and appeal, and more hard work; which premises a greater task for its learners, than the fact-gathering about present-day affairs which lends fascination to the problem approach; which says that its students shall see the world whole, if they have the ability to comprehend it, rather than that selected sections of it, of a grateful and comforting flavor, shall be served to it on a platter of ready-made interest. It has been, last of all, a satisfaction to say a word for those boys and girls, who having come a long hard journey relieved only by the faith and hope of their guides, stand finally on an Anatolian hill and cry,

Θαλαττα, Θαλαττα!

FRANCES MOREHOUSE

Mr. Chairman and Fellow Members:

Miss Morehouse has presented both sides of this question so impartially and so admirably that it would be foolish to attempt to go further with the comparison. Her careful analysis of what a problem really is should make the way clear for those of us who believe in the problem method of approach to the social studies. I shall devote the few minutes at my disposal to a statement of what seems to me the main advantages of the problem-solving method.

Our high school seniors face concrete problems, not abstract sciences; but they must go to the sciences for explanations and possible solutions of these problems. Accordingly, upon the high school rests the responsibility in large measure of training these junior citizens in the technique of using the social sciences.

Our young people must be trained to investigate both facts and theories; to reason; to judge; to interpret; to discuss. Their

thinking progresses from the effect—which they already know, or which they discover in the approach to the problem—to the cause to the remedy; and not (according to the method usually employed in the formal sciences) of going from cause to effect to remedy.

While there is much to be said for the old method, it has certain outstanding weaknesses. One of these weaknesses would seem to be that of segregating the problems of the day in a three-fold classification: social, economic, political. As a matter of fact it is a difficult matter to find any problem worth discussing in a senior high school class that does not combine all of the above qualities.

Another weakness of the older method is that the textbooks are either largely descriptive or else they proceed on the theory-with-illustration plan. That is, first a theory is stated, then one or two illustrations are given, then comes another theory, followed by more illustrations. This is exactly the opposite of the way in which our minds work, and hence can hardly be said to conform with our best educational theory.

One fundamental weakness of the usual method of teaching senior social science is that it calls only for a "recitation" room, not for a work room—a laboratory with book laboratory equipment. A class using the problem-solving method, with committee reports and class discussions, finds it exceedingly difficult to get along with inadequate school furniture and equipment.

A final weakness that may be noted is that the emphasis is placed on individual performance rather than on group co-operation. The problem-solving method naturally calls for committee (group) reports with the resulting discussion by the class, rather than for the formal type of recitation. This is certainly very much to be desired.

The brief experience already had with the problem method goes to show that it is equally valuable for those who go on to college and for those who do not. Both have been better trained for the work that lies ahead of them; for they have gained power and interest and mental flexibility. Incidentally, not accidentally, they have gained a fair command of the vital facts and principles of the social sciences.

J. Lynn Barnard

OUR REVOLUTIONARY DEBT TO FRANCE

In the political literature of the past ten years there are many references to our Revolutionary debt to France, some accurate as far as they go, others wholly false or misleading. For general inaccuracy and specific misstatement of facts I am compelled, after a careful examination of the subject, to assign first place to the present chairman of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations. In a speech on the French war debt reported in the Congressional Record of January 22, 1925, Senator Borah, who discusses public questions in quite the Websterian manner on a supposedly high plane of accuracy and political detachment, made certain statements in regard to the financial assistance rendered by France during the Revolutionary War, to which Senator Bruce took exception, and the following colloquy occured:

> MR. BRUCE. The Senator is aware, of course, that France made some very large gifts to the people of the United States during the War of the Revolution?
>
> MR. BORAH. I have not been able to find a record of them.
>
> MR. BRUCE. The Senator will find a record of them among the letters of Benjamin Franklin. In one of his famous letters he acknowledged the fact that France made these gifts and expressed the hope that the gratitude of the United States because of them would be eternal.
>
> MR. BORAH. Mr. Franklin, with whose history the Senator from Maryland is so familiar and concerning whom he has written so illuminatingly, was referring, I presume, to what was called the gift by Beaumarchais, but that was afterwards settled, after Mr. Franklin had passed to the region from whose bourne no traveler returns.
>
> MR. BRUCE. If the Senator will allow me, I was not referring to that at all.
>
> MR. BORAH. To what was the Senator referring?
>
> MR. BRUCE. I was not referring to any part of the loans made by the French Government to the United States through the agency of the house of Hortalez and Co., of which Beaumarchais was the directing genius.
>
> MR. BORAH. Will the Senator state to what specific gift he has reference?

Mr. Bruce. Franklin records the fact that on one occasion he applied to the French minister for a loan of 6,000,000 livres, only to be told by the French minister that the French Government was not willing to make a loan of that amount, but was willing to make a gift of that amount, which was duly made.

Mr. Borah. That took place, as the Senator must know, because at the time Franklin applied for that loan the French Government was not willing to risk its chances with the American Colonies, and they never did take the risk until after the Battle of Saratoga. Therefore they transmitted this loan—this gift, if the Senator prefers to call it such, which afterwards transformed itself into a loan—through certain individuals from whom Franklin got it. One of them was Beaumarchais. But that afterwards came in and was adjusted and settled, just the same as the other obligations were settled. If there was any gift of which there has been no settlement, after the most industrious effort I have been unable to find a record of it, and the Treasury Department has been unable to find any record of it, and in my opinion history does not record it.

It would be a waste of time to undertake a full analysis of this statement of errors before a group of history teachers, and in fact it would deserve no comment at all were it not for the fact that it was made by the Chairman of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations. The Senator is hopelessly muddled. He has evidently confused the gift of 6,000,000 livres in 1781, for which France never expected or asked repayment, with the loan of 6,000,000 in 1783, which was repaid in full.

I respectfully call the attention of the Chairman of the Foreign Relations Committee of the United States Senate to the contracts for the repayment of the French loans signed by Franklin and Vergennes in 1782 and 1783, and published in a work with which the Senate committee should be fairly familiar, the official collection of the Treaties of the United States (compiled by W. M. Malloy), vol. I, pp. 483 and 487. These contracts or treaties were duly ratified by the Congress of the Confederation. In Article II of the treaty of 1783 we find the statement that "it has been found proper to recapitulate here the amount of the preceding aids granted by the King to the United States, and to distinguish them according to their different classes." The first two classes embrace the loans which are described with sufficient clearness. The treaty

continues: "In the third class are comprehended the aids and subsidies furnished to the Congress of the United States, under the title of gratuitous assistance, from the pure generosity of the King, three millions of which were granted before the treaty of February, 1778, and six millions in 1781; which aids and subsidies amount in the whole to nine millions livres tournois. His Majesty here confirms, in case of need, the gratuitous gift to the Congress of the said thirteen United States."

A dispute later arose as to the first million advanced June 10, 1776, through Beaumarchais, before Franklin reached Paris. This was the so-called "lost million," which continued to be a subject of dispute for the next half century and about which I shall say more later. Deducting this, for the moment, from the 9,000,000 livres as fixed by the treaty, there remain 8,000,000 about which there has never been any dispute or question raised by either government. These 8,000,000 livres were a free gift for which repayment was never asked or offered. I challenge Senator Borah to produce any evidence from the records of either the State Department or the Treasury Department substantiating his statement that six millions of these advances were later transformed into a loan and fully repaid. In fact the very documents he quotes contradict him. In a memorandum from the Treasury Department published as an appendix to his speech we find this statement: "So far as the Treasury has been able to determine the facts, there was never any misunderstanding over the gratuities granted by the French King to the United States through Benjamin Franklin, in amount 8,000,000 livres. The adjustment of 1795 seems conclusive in this respect." Senator Borah was not sufficiently familiar with the documents to understand the reference to "the adjustment of 1795." He evidently thought it referred to the gifts, whereas, as a matter of fact, it refers to the loans, as anyone who takes the trouble to examine the documents with any care will see.

Admitting however, that the above reference to the adjustment of 1795 might mislead one not familiar with that settlement, Senator Borah stands convicted of carelessness on another count. He quotes at length from Bayley's "History of the National Loans of the United States." Now Bayley, without documentary evidence but relying solely on a passage in Loménie's "Beaumarchais

and his Times," places the amount of the French subsidy at 10,000,000 livres instead of 9,000,000, and adds: "As this money was a free gift it has not been repaid, unless the sums paid Beaumarchais be taken as a partial reimbursement." Senator Borah eagerly accepts the alternative. Bayley says that under an act of Congress of April 18, 1806, $78,886.26 was paid to Beaumarchais' heirs. In his speech Senator Borah, familiar with present day national debts that run into billions, raises Bayley's figures from petty thousands to respectable millions and gives $78,886,026 as the amount paid in 1806 to the heirs of Beaumarchais. If we repaid that amount, more than our entire Revolutionary debt domestic as well as foreign, then Senator Borah has some ground for thinking that our pecuniary obligations to France were fully liquidated.

The speech was not without its amusing incident. When Senator Bruce, who has written a two-volume work on Benjamin Franklin and is entitled to recognition as an authority on our relations with France during the Revolution, tried again to correct the unfounded assertions of the chairman of the Committee on Foreign Relations, the latter objected to the interruption and refused to yield the floor, exclaiming: "I do not want the Senator to put incorrect history into my speech." [Laughter.] At the expense of Senator Bruce apparently! The speech as a whole might well move this gathering of history teachers to laughter, were it not for the appalling fact that it was uttered by the chairman of the Committee which has undertaken to wrest from the President of the United States the control of the foreign relations of the country.

We shall now consider the French loans, about which there has been no serious misunderstanding, except with reference to the first which was obtained by Franklin and Deane in 1777 from the Farmers-General of France, an organization which collected the taxes and enjoyed among other privileges the tobacco monopoly. In the contract for this loan dated March 24, 1777, Franklin and Deane undertook in the name of their government to deliver during the year 1777 five thousand hogsheads of York and James River tobacco, while the Farmers-General agreed, on their part, to accept bills drawn on them by Franklin and Deane in the course of the ensuing month to the extent of 1,000,000 livres,

and to pay another million as soon as the tobacco arrived.[1] As Congress was able to deliver but a small part of the tobacco promised, only the first million was advanced under this contract, and a considerable sum remained due to the Farmers-General for the first million. This sum was later repaid to the French government, which as a result of the Revolution succeeded to the rights of the Farmers-General.

The first loan negotiated directly with the French government was that of 1778 for 18,000,000 livres, advanced in twenty-one instalments from 1778 to 1782. This was the result of France's decision to recognize the independence of the United States, and the first advance was made three weeks after the signing of the Treaty of Alliance.

In 1781 France secured for the United States a loan of 10,000,000 livres from Holland, the interest and principal of which were guaranteed by the French government. This must not be confused with the Dutch loan secured later by John Adams.

In 1783 France made another loan of 6,000,000 livres.

These loans amounted in all to 35,000,000 livres, or $6,352,500. In the contract between Franklin and Vergennes signed in 1782 the French government remitted the arrears of interest on the 18,000,000 loan, amounting, Franklin stated in his letter to Congress, "to the value of near two millions" (livres).[2]

After the Revolution the finances of the Confederation were in such bad shape that Congress was unable to keep up the interest payments on the French loans or to pay any instalments on the principal, but after the organization of the new government under the Constitution Hamilton took the matter in hand, and both principal and interest, with the exception of the remitted interest referred to by Franklin, were eventually repaid in full. The final funding operation took place in 1795 when the debt was converted into domestic stock, bearing interest at $4\frac{1}{2}$ and $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. per annum. In a report dated December 14, 1795, Oliver Wolcott, Secretary of the Treasury, stated that the French debt had been "adjusted to the satisfaction of an authorized agent of the French

[1] Wharton, "Diplomatic Correspondence of the American Revolution," vol. II, p. 300.

[2] Malloy, "Treaties of the United States," vol. I, p. 485, and Bigelow, "Works of Benjamin Franklin," vol. VIII, p. 145.

Republic." The 4½ per cent. stock was all repaid in 1807 and 1808, and the 5½ per cent. stock was finally paid in 1815.[1]

Having disposed of the loans, we revert now to Beaumarchais and his services to the American cause. As the result of information received by Franklin from friends in Paris that France was inclined to render secret aid to the colonies, Congress decided to send an authorized business agent to Paris, and in February, 1776, Silas Deane, of Connecticut, who had been a member of the first and second Congresses, was elected to fill this important post. He was directed to proceed to Paris in the character of a West Indian merchant, and was furnished with letters of introduction to various friends of America. He reached Paris in July, and soon established close relations with Caron de Beaumarchais, a secret agent of the French Court. Beaumarchais, famous in literature as the author of two of the most popular comedies of the day, "The Barber of Seville," and "The Marriage of Figaro," was something more than an adventurer, a man, undoubtedly, of great talents, and while a past-master in the art of intrigue, there was a fascinating combination of boldness, resourcefulness and chivalry in his nature. Long before the arrival of Deane, he had conceived the idea of becoming the secret agent of the French Court in forwarding supplies to the colonies, and had made journeys to London to confer with Arthur Lee, of Virginia.

Before the arrival of Deane, the Count de Vergennes, Secretary for Foreign Affairs, had secured the assent of the King to two propositions, first, furnishing a million livres to the colonies, and second, the appointment of Beaumarchais as the secret agent through whom aid was to be extended. Beaumarchais is generally credited with having enlisted Vergennes in the cause and with having finally won the approval of the King. In a memorial to Louis XVI in February, 1776, Beaumarchais said: "If it be replied that we can not assist the Americans without offending England and without drawing upon us the storm which I wish to keep off, I reply that this danger will not be incurred if the plan I have so many times proposed be followed,—that of secretly assisting the Americans without compromising ourselves..... If your Majesty has not at hand a more clever man to employ in the

[1] American State Papers, Finance, vol. I, pp. 360, 671.

matter, I undertake and answer for its execution without anyone being compromised, persuaded that my zeal will supply my want of talent better than the talent of another man could replace my zeal."

In pursuance of his scheme, Beaumarchais established a mercantile house under the fictitious name of "Roderique Hortalez et Cie." When Deane arrived he was semi-officially referred to this firm, from which he soon obtained clothing for 20,000 men, 30,000 muskets, 100 tons of gunpowder, 200 brass cannon, 24 mortars, with shot and shell in proportion. The firm of Hortalez and Co. continued in existence from 1776 to 1783, occupying a large residence on a prominent street formerly owned by The Netherlands government as its embassy. During that period its disbursements are said to have amounted to over 21,000,000 livres, a considerable portion of which was used in the purchase and shipment of military supplies to America. Beaumarchais' letters are delightfully written and highly entertaining, and there can be no question about his zeal for the American cause or the value of the services which he actually rendered.

As a natural consequence of the dubious and fictitious character of the house of Hortalez and Co., the question arose, when the time came for a settlement, as to whether certain supplies received by Congress from Beaumarchais were sent on his own account or were gifts from the French government. Arthur Lee, who had conceived a violent dislike of Beaumarchais, insisted that they were gifts, for which no payment was expected. This view appears to have been shared at first by Franklin and Deane, but when they made inquiry of Vergennes, he replied that the King had furnished nothing; that he had simply permitted Beaumarchais to provide himself from his arsenals, on condition of replacing the articles.

In 1786, when the accounts of M. Grand, the American banker in Paris, came up for settlement, it was discovered that he had credited the United States with only two million livres received as a gift from the French government prior to the treaty of 1778, whereas in the contract of February, 1783, between Franklin and Vergennes, the amount was put at three million. Franklin, who had returned to the United States, was unable to explain the discrepancy, and wrote to Grand earnestly requesting him "to get

this matter explained, that it may stand clear before I die, lest some enemy should afterwards accuse me of having received a million not accounted for." The only information Grand could get from Vergennes was that the million in question had been advanced June 10, 1776. As this was before the arrival of Franklin, or even Deane, at Paris, Franklin concluded that the million had been paid to Beaumarchais and that it was a *mystère du cabinet*, which perhaps had better not be further inquired into.[1]

Thus the "lost million" entered the case, and Congress refused to pay Beaumarchis' claims until the mystery could be cleared up. When Hamilton was Secretary of the Treasury, Beaumarchais' claim was again taken up, and the auditor reported a balance due Beaumarchais of 2,280,231 livres, but again raised the question of the "lost million." At the request of Hamilton, Jefferson directed Gouverneur Morris, United States minister at Paris, to make further inquiries of the French government. Now that the monarchy had been overthrown, the government of the Republic had no objection to revealing the state secrets of the old régime, and Morris was given a copy of the long sought receipt, which showed that the million in question had been received by Beaumarchais, and that he had agreed to account for it to Vergennes.

After Beaumarchais' death in 1799, the claim was taken up by the French government on behalf of his wife and daughter, and in 1806 Congress passed an act authorizing the payment of $78,886.26, the amount reported by the Treasury officials as due after the deduction of one million livres. Beaumarchais' heirs continued to press for the payment of this million.

The French government repeatedly declared that the million in dispute had been used for secret political purposes in advancing the American cause, and produced papers with the endorsements of Vergennes and the King to the effect that the money had been used for the purposes designated. The opponents of the claim expressed the belief that the money was used for the purchase of supplies intended as free gifts from the King of France. The payment of the claim was recommended by Attorney-General C. A. Rodney, by Attorney-General William Pinkney, by Presidents

[1]Wharton, "Diplomatic Correspondence of the American Revolution," I, 376–380.

Madison and Monroe and by various committees of Congress, but no action was taken.

In 1828 the claim was referred to the committee on Foreign Affairs, of which Edward Everett was chairman. The report, dated April 1, includes all previous reports and most of the important documents bearing on the case.[1] The committee recommended payment of the claim and reported a bill for that purpose. This recommendation shared the fate of the preceding ones.

In 1831 Mr. William C. Rives, United States minister to France, signed a convention adjusting claims of American citizens against France for the illegal seizure of ships and goods during the Napoleonic wars and the claims of French subjects against the United States. The convention embodied a compromise on both sides. American claims were reduced to 25,000,000 francs and French claims to 1,500,000. Out of the latter sum the Beaumarchais heirs, whose claim now amounted with interest to 4,689,241 francs, received in 1835 the sum of 810,000 francs.[2] The dispute was thus officially ended.

Senator Borah, quoting Bayley, says this sum of 810,000 francs, together with the amount paid in 1806, made an over-payment of 1,426,787 livres. Bayley was an official of the Treasury Department, who prepared for the Census Report of 1880 a history of the National Loans of the United States.[3] Now let us see how he arrives at the over-payment. He reaches his conclusion by deducting not only the million advanced June 10, 1776, but a million advanced by Spain August 11, 1776, and a third million which he says was advanced by France in instalments during the year 1777. He finds the third million in a statement which occurs in Loménie, "Beaumarchais and his Times." Nowhere else have I been able to find it. It is certain that it was unknown to the American diplomats, Treasury officials, and committees of Con-

---

[1] 20th Cong., 1st Sess., House Report No. 220.

[2] Moore, "International Arbitrations," V, 4460.

[3] Tenth Census Reports, vol. VII, pp. 299–486.

gress that passed on the claim. Bayley's statement of the account (p. 303) is as follows:

The United States	Livres
By shipments of produce	713,996
By payment to M. de Francy	55,000
By bills of exchange on Franklin	2,688,000
By French subsidies paid Beaumarchais	2,000,000
By Spanish subsidies paid Beaumarchais	1,000,000
By grant by Congress April, 1806	434,635
By payment in 1835	810,000
	7,701,631
To Beaumarchais' account for supplies, etc., as stated by himself	6,274,844
	1,426,787

Whatever may be said of the above method of stating the account, surely there is no ground for the statement of Bayley and Borah that Beaumarchais was over-paid *by the United States*. We received supplies, over and above those paid for, to the full value of a million livres, for which we refused to make payment. Our excuse for the refusal was that the French government had paid for them. This the French government persistently denied, and stated that the million in question had been given Beaumarchais to be used for a secret political purpose in the interest of the American cause, and that he had accounted for the same to Vergennes and to the King.

Loménie, Beaumarchais' principal biographer, advances the opinion, without sufficient evidence, it seems to me, that the three millions, which he says Beaumarchais received from France and Spain, were all used in the purchase of supplies, but he adds that the losses sustained through the capture of his ships by the English cruisers and through his transactions with individual States of the Union amounted to considerably more than three millions. He thinks, therefore, that Vergennes, who was thoroughly conversant with Beaumarchais' affairs, approved of his asking full payment for the supplies actually delivered, even though some of them may have been originally intended as gifts from the Crown.

It is true that Beaumarchais had to assume all the risk of getting the supplies to America, as Congress refused to pay for those captured by the English cruisers. His losses in transactions with Virginia and South Carolina were due to the rapid depreciation of State currency. Jefferson, in a letter to Beaumarchais' agent, expressed his mortification at the losses sustained, through depreciation of the currency, by one "who has merited so well of us."[1]

There is little doubt that Beaumarchais' espousal of the American cause proved his financial ruin. In view of his great services, it is a matter of regret that he and his heirs were not given a full measure of justice. His case has frequently been cited by writers as a notable example of the ingratitude of republics. The exact disposition of the so-called "lost million" can never be established, for, after the account was rendered, the vouchers were destroyed. Modern governments, including that of the United States, handle secret service funds in pretty much the same way. Anyone who will take the trouble to examine even casually the twenty-five volumes of Stevens, "Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America, 1773-1783," will get some idea of the methods employed by the diplomats of that day and of the amounts of money that were required for gathering information and securing copies of documents. The King of England paid Sir Hugh Elliot, his ambassador at Berlin, one thousand pounds for the expenses he had incurred in connection with the sensational theft of Arthur Lee's papers, one of the most amusing and notorious incidents of the day.[2]

Before concluding this paper it may be well to restate the financial assistance received from France in tabular form. The "lost million" should be placed in the list of gifts from the French Crown. It was so acknowledged by Franklin in the treaty of 1783, and so regarded by the Treasury officials, who deducted that amount from Beaumarchais' accounts. There was never any ques-

---

[1]Loménie, "Beaumarchais et Son Temps," II, 200–204; Kite, "Beaumarchais and the War of American Independence," II, 159, 245; see also Governor Monroe's "Communication to the Legislature relative to the Claim of the Representatives of Beaumarchais against the Commonwealth," Richmond, 1802.

[2]Stevens, Facsimiles, No. 1482.

tion about this. The only question at issue was as to whether it was used as a secret service fund or for the purchase of supplies. In agreeing to the final compromise the United States government committed itself to the view that it had been used as a secret service fund and that, therefore, Beaumarchais' heirs were entitled to payment for the supplies delivered. Even if Senator Borah insists that our obligations to Beaumarchais were fully met, he cannot dismiss the eight millions of gifts and the two millions of remitted interest.

Gifts, for which repayment was never demanded or offered:

	Livres
1776, June 10	1,000,000
1777	2,000,000
1781	6,000,000
1782, Interest remitted on loan of 1778, approximately	2,000,000
	11,000,000

Loans, repaid in full:	Livres
1777, from the Farmers-General	1,000,000
1778, advanced in 21 instalments, 1778-1782	18,000,000
1781, obtained by France from Holland	10,000,000
1783, advanced through Franklin	6,000,000
	35,000,000[1]

This paper has been limited to a discussion of the financial aid rendered to the United States by France during the Revolutionary War, but it should be remembered that France also rendered indispensable military and naval aid at critical periods. The battle of Saratoga did not end the war, as Senator Borah appears to think. He forgets that the darkest period of the war—the long winter at Valley Forge—came after Saratoga, and that the final

[1] Malloy, "Treaties of the United States," vol. I, pp. 483–490; Bayley's "History of National Loans of the United States," Tenth Census Reports, vol. VII, pp. 299–309.

surrender at Yorktown was brought about by the timely appearance in the Chesapeake of the French fleet under Count de Grasse and the rapid movement of Washington with Rochambeau's expeditionary French force from the Hudson to the historic Virginia peninsula, where LaFayette, at the head of an American force, was holding Cornwallis in check. There were more Frenchmen engaged in the operations at Yorktown, soldiers and sailors, than there were Americans.

JOHN H. LATANÉ

THE COLUMBIA COURSE IN CONTEMPORARY CIVILIZATION

During the last ten years a number of revolutionary innovations have been adopted by many of our collegiate institutions. These include (1) new methods of admission and testing; (2) increased opportunities for students of superior ability, and (3) the introduction of general survey courses. All three of these changes have been introduced in Columbia College. For the past six years, for instance, approximately fifty per cent. of the members of our freshman classes have been admitted on the basis of satisfactory school and character records plus a psychological test. Moreover, for the past two years members of the entering class have been required to take what are known as placement examinations in English, French, German and Mathematics for the purpose of ascertaining the type of college work which each is competent to do in these respective subjects.

For our students of outstanding ability who have done work of high calibre during the first two years of their course and who are possessed of more than ordinary industry and intellectual curiosity, we have established a two-year course called General Honors. Students permitted to elect this course read and discuss with several members of the faculty some fifty of the world's great books. In addition, each student is required to select a department such as English, or economics, or philosophy, or history, under which he will carry on research work or do special reading,

the results to be embodied at the end of each semester in an essay or report. Throughout the course the utmost encouragement is given each student to express his opinion. In no small sense the course is in reality an exercise in self-education.

In introducing the general survey course Columbia has operated on the assumption that it is not the fundamental business of the College to turn out specialists in a narrow field, and that an individual, is, after all, not well educated unless he or she has at least some conception of the broad field of intellectual endeavor. By this we do not mean to infer that Columbia College does not fully realize that the day has apparently long since passed when a person could be a profound scholar in a wide field, or that the specialist is not a very useful human being in our present complex civilization. Such an inference would be sheerest nonsense. It simply meant that Columbia College is primarily concerned with liberalization rather than with specialization, and that in addition to feeling responsible for guiding its students into particular channels it considers it even more important to help them see life broadly. It is with this in mind that such general survey courses as the History of Science, Fine Arts, Religion, and Contemporary Civilization have been added to its curriculum.

The course in Contemporary Civilization, which was introduced in September, 1919, in place of the required courses in History and Philosophy, aims (1) to inform the student of the more outstanding and influential factors of his physical and social environment; (2) to survey the historical background of contemporary civilization; (3) to raise for consideration the insistent problems of the present; (4) to enable the student to understand the civilization of his own day and to participate more effectively in it; and (5) finally to give the student early in his college course objective material on which to base his own further studies.

These aims become doubly significant when we consider that in our present complex society the vast majority as far as we can ascertain, for various reasons never critically examine our existing social standards; neither the historical origins nor the social significance of these standards are known, and yet by many they are criticised and oftentimes denounced. To label these critics as radicals, to heap vituperation upon their heads, to confine them within prison walls, or even to harry them out of the land will lead

nowhere. Only through a careful examination of the existing order can their challenge be met or sane changes in our institutions be made. Force and repression at best are only temporary expedients and lend nothing to the inculcation of that spirit of cooperation so necessary if men are to live and work together happily. Nowhere is there more urgent need for an intelligent understanding of the insistent problems of today than among college youth. As citizens who should participate in affairs with clear judgment and intelligence, and as the leaders of tomorrow it is vitally important that they understand the civilization of their day. More important still, they should be trained to meet honest and serious criticism of the present order not by blind prejudice and blustering talk but by carefully reasoned argument.

The course is divided into three main divisions: *The Basis of Civilization, A Survey of the Characteristics of the Present Age*, and *The Insistent Problems of Today*. Part of the first division deals with the physical world in its relation to the activities of man. Here the aim is to present as vividly as possible the intimate interdependence of man and nature. This section is treated topically and requires about a week. Following this, six weeks are devoted to a discussion of The World of Human Nature. The chief purposes of this part of the course are (1) to state and illustrate the interdependence of "man" and "society", (2) to present a working picture of the different kinds of activity natural to human beings; (3) to present the fact of individual differences; and (4)—to show how man has created different types of institutions and thot structures in order to express and satisfy his needs.

The second main division traces the history of our present-day institutions, while the third presents in considerable detail the chief problems arising in attempts to find satisfactory solutions of the difficulties incident to the major relationships which men sustain. Five problems in particular are considered, namely (1) Imperialism and Backward People; (2) Nationalism and Internationalism; (3) Industrialism and Raising the Standards of Living; (4) Political Control and (5) Education.

The first syllabus for the course was prepared by a group of instructors from the departments of History, Philosophy, Economics and Government. At the beginning they determined not to be restricted by consideration of available text books, but to be guided

by a desire to present in simple non-technical fashion such information and dscussion as they thought desirable for the average college freshman. The syllabus, therefore, was not built around a particular text book nor was it the product of one man. When completed it represented the combined efforts of men with somewhat diverse training and frequently of opposing points of view.

The course, which runs through the year, meets five times a week for periods of fifty minutes each. Students meet in sections of thirty, sections being determined on the basis of psychological tests. In all, there are twenty sections, each being taught by the same instructor throughout the year. The course therefore is not made up of a series of lectures given by specialists in various fields. These instructors are drawn from the departments of Economics, Government, History, Philosophy and Psychology, and great care is exercised in selecting them. In fact only those who are willing or eager to do a great deal of painstaking and diligent study in order to acquaint themselves with such a diversified field, and who have shown marked ability to co-operate are taken. The classroom work is devoted almost exclusively to discussion based upon the syllabus and outside reading. Assignments, hourly quizzes and final examinations are the same for all sections. The question of a notebook is left to the discretion of each instructor. Instructors with "low" sections are apt to require notebook work, while those with "high" sections are likely to assign essays on given topics. Once each week the instructing staff meets together at luncheon where difficulties are ironed out and suggestions for improvement made. Each year the group spends the Easter recess together at a country camp and this affords an excellent opportunity for acquaintanceship and discussion. Each section elects a student representative and at informal gatherings of a cordial social character these representatives discuss the course with the Dean and the instructors and bring to them the students' criticisms and suggestions for improvement of the course. The students are encouraged to give both destructive and constructive criticism and have shown unusual discrimination and intelligent support.

From the standpoint of administration as well as of instruction, the course is revolutionary in that it cuts across departmental lines, but as the Dean of Columbia College has well remarked "col-

lege departments are devices of man rather than gifts of God".[1] The cost of instruction for the course is by no means light; twelve hours per week or its equivalent is considered a normal teaching schedule, and since the course meets five hours a week most of the instructors teaching it are giving in addition two three-hours courses. In addition to a copy of the Syllabus each student is at present required to buy four volumes, namely, Edman, *Human Traits and Their Social Significance;* Randall, *The Western Mind;* Hayes, *A Political and Socie1 History of Modern Europe,* Vol. II; and Tugwell, Munro and Stryker, *American Economic Development.* This represents a total expenditure of approximately fifteen dollars. Reference readings listed in the Syllabus are of two types; required and non-required. In the College Study fifty copies of each of the required books (other than texts) have been provided by the trustees as well as from three to five copies of all books referred to but only casually used. Each student is allowed to count the ten points of the course toward his two required sequences or majors if both happen to be in certain subjects. For example, if he has one sequence in History he may count six points of the course toward the required eighteen points, and if his other sequence is in Philosophy or Economics or Government he may use the remaining four points of the course toward the second sequence. The course does not count for sequence in other subjects than those just mentioned.

Four main criticisms have been directed against the course. In the first place, criticism has been made of its location in the freshman year. It has been found after half a dozen years, experience that the freshmen are more interested in the material of the course than in anything else they are studying, that there are disproportionately fewer failures as compared with a number of other courses, and that section representatives have frequently expressed the opinion that the course is the best thing in the freshman year. The senior class for the past two years has voted it the most helpful of all courses taken. In the judgment of certain of the older instructors who have taught either freshman Philosophy or History, the course is no more difficult than the

[1]H. E. Hawkes, "*A College Course on Peace Issues,*" Educational Review, Vtol. 58, pp. 143–150.

older required courses. There are three good pedagogical reasons for putting the course in the freshman year:

1. It is an initiation into college study, marking a break from the work of the secondary schools and recognizing the ability of the freshman to take up the serious discussion of the problems of the world in which he lives.
2. It brings together and shows the interrelations of a variety of disciplines ordinarily thought of by the student as distinct departments. Within the course the relationships of Psychology, Anthropology, Ethics, History, Economics, Government, Sociology, and Education are brought and out the artificial distinctions eliminated. In other words, it is a step in the direction of abolishing the "pigeon-hole" type of education.
3. In the third place, students at the very outset of their course are given an introduction to a variety of subjects in which opportunity for advanced study is offered by the university. Their early acquaintance may sufficiently arouse their interest to lead them to make elections which would be impossible if the first contact with the subjects came in the last year of college.

A second criticism is that the instructors may be incompetent to meet the heavy demands laid upon them. In other words, it is asserted that the course touches so many different departmental field that it must be impossible to find instructors capable of conducting the entire course. Fortunately this has not been the case. True we have never had an instructor who was able to handle the entire course without hard work on some part of it. Most of our staff, however, who have worked primarily in one field have had a considerable amount of undergraduate or graduate training in one or more of the allied fields. The men who have been drawn to the course have been willing to work hard not only to be in a position to handle the course but to advance their own knowledge and to gain a broader perspective for the work in their particular fields. Furthermore, it should be noted that the course by no means requires a searching acquaintance with the technical detail of every field.

Some believe in the third place, that it is impossible to cover such a wide field without being superficial. It is obvious that such a survey course as Contemporary Civilization cannot enter deeply into the detailed content of any one field. But the description of the surface of a broad field need not be either superficial in its intellectual aims or its intellectual results. This fact was admirably stated in the report of a Committee of the American Association of University Professors on Initiatory Courses for Freshmen: "It will be intellectually superficial if the instructor gives the impression that his swift survey conveys all that is worth knowing about each portion of the field; it will *not* be intellectually superficial if the instructor recognizes constantly the limitations of the course, makes it clear that he is touching only the surface of each portion of the field, and suggests something of the significance of the material within each field, which the course cannot examine. Such treatment, instead of giving 'a false sense of omniscience' would give a due sense of intellectual humility; and instead of 'taking the edge off the adventure of learning' would whet the eagerness for such an adventure."[1]

Lastly, the citicism has been made that a survey course such as Contemporary Civilization fails to teach the student how to think. Whether this be true or not depends largely upon what is meant by the term "to think". Contemporary Civilization is not primarily intended as a survey of the thought process as it manifests itself throughout the entire range of intellectual enterprise. Such a course is given under the department of Philosophy. In this required course it has seemed wiser to give particular emphasis to the formation of well supported opinion in the fields of the social science. Certainly we have every reason to believe that the course broadens the student's intellectual horizon perhaps more than would a course devoted primarily to thought processes.

One important question which naturally arises in the mind of the teacher of history is the effect of the course (1) upon the history instructor who gives it, and (2) its reaction on history work in general. Almost without exception every member of the history staff who has taught the course enthusiastically declares

---

[1] *Bulletin of the American Association of University Professors*, Vol. VIII, p. 38.

that it has broadened his own intellectual outlook and enriched his history teaching. The reaction of the course on the work of the department of history can perhaps best be judged by comparing the number of students who are now taking history with those who took it in the academic year 1918–1919 before the course was given and when a course in Modern European History was required. With the total registration in the College approximately the same for the two years, the number taking history courses today shows an increase of more than twenty per cent over the earlier year.

In conclusion I would like to point out that from the first we have treated the course as an educational experiment and have made changes wherever they would improve the course. Only now, after half a dozen years of experience during which the syllabus has gone through four editions, do we feel that we have reached a point where we can print a syllabus of more permanent character and begin the preparation of texts to cover the subject matter. It is our candid opinion that any institution which believes this type of course to be worth while should work it out to meet its own particular needs. With us the course has been very successful largely because it was made to fit our own situation, the small size of the sections, the continuity of instruction, the feeling on the part of those who have taught it that it was worth doing and worth doing well, and, above all, because Columbia College is an institution which does not exist primarily for the benefit of its instructors nor solely for the discovery of new items of knowledge, but in the first instance for the rounded education of youth.

HARRY J. CARMAN

AN INTRODUCTION TO COLLEGE WORK

(A Course for Freshmen at Johns Hopkins)

The Freshman Introductory Course at Johns Hopkins was organized in 1921 to accomplish a double purpose, first to introduce Freshmen to the methods of university study, and second to give them a rigourous training in what is now called "reflective thinking".

The need of an introduction to college work seemed to be shown not only by the bewilderment and perhaps excessive failures of entering students, but by the actual growing difference between high-school and university methods of instruction. What university teacher has not seen those freshmen who sit puzzled by what seems to their instructors the simplest of remarks, who take every pleasantry for grim matter of fact, who are too intimidated to ask a question even when the answer might prove essential to their understanding of the lecture, who are ignorant of the resources of the library, who do not seem to know that there is a possibility of discovering facts for oneself, who are ready to give up the struggle in a fortnight's time because they are all at sea? This reason for an introductory course is well appreciated by our colleagues. But the second, I have found, is not. They forget that freshmen come from a heterogeneous collection of high-schools and that although a certain number may be trained so that the transition to the college is smoothed to the vanishing point, the majority—at least the majority of those whom I have met—are suddenly put into college with practically no preparation at all.

They have, let us say, the proper preparation as far as entrance requirements are concerned, english, latin, mathematics, history, and so on. But entrance requirements cover subject matter only and not the manner of study. The best preparation for college is a certain attitude of mind and not the possession of any particular subject matter. Now the freshman's attitude of mind on the whole towards knowledge seems to be as follows:

(1) Education is the acquiring of information.

(2) This information is what may be called "the great truths of science".

(3) All scholars—scientists, mathematicians, historians, philosophers— are agreed in their own fields as to what the great truths are.

(4) This information can be obtained through reading and listening to lectures.

This paper is not an attempt to lay the blame for the failure of the colleges upon the high schools. That is an easy and traditional way of solving all difficult problems. The problem which the orientation course is called upon to solve is a university problem and must be met within the university. For it seems to me perfectly comprehensible that a freshman should have this attitude. In high school he is primarily concerned with acquiring the broad background, as it is euphemistically called, which is indispensable to learning. If high school teachers spent their time instilling in their students that healthy scepticism which is the aim of education, their students would never learn anything. Tolerance for other people's views before one has views of one's own is simply intellectual laziness. It is, I take it, one thing for Mr. Morgan to criticize Darwin and another for Mr. Bryan to do so. I can see too why high school education—at least in public high schools—should be more or less authoritarian. The simple fact of crowded classes, the aims of whose members are diverse if not hostile, would prevent anything else. But I should not admit that these reasons continue to hold good in college and college education is what I am at present interested in.

It is first my belief (and I presume the general belief of the Johns Hopkins faculty) that education is not essentially the acquiring of information. At any rate the Freshman course is conducted upon the assumption that information has simply an instrumental value to aid in man's control of the universe either literally—as in the applied sciences—or figuratively, as an aid to understanding what shall probably never be completely understood, the constitution of the universe as a whole. When it was believed that everything that could be known was known, I can understand that information should have been the goal of life and exposition its main activity. But our contemporaries cannot be asked to believe that the discoveries of modern science are downright false, however shaky they may be. For good or ill they feel that this is a universe about which we are relatively ignorant

and they entertain as one of their deepest needs the hope of adjusting themselves to it, that spiritual mastery of life which replaces to-day trustfulness and submission. An orientation course gives more than directions for guidance within the college, it gives at least tentative directions for guidance within the universe itself. Why then should it not be a course in ethics, religion, philosophy? Perhaps it should. But at Johns Hopkins it is unfortunate in having as its teacher a person who has no answer to ethical, religious, or philosophic problems. Hence he contents himself with sharpening the tools with which an answer may be built.

In the second place ought not college teachers to admit that the great truths of science are an ideal and not a reality? In almost any field with which one is familiar the agreement turns out to be about little truths not great ones. In your own field you are all agreed—with the possible exception of Mr. Beard—that the Civil War (will you permit me to call it the "Civil War"?) began in 1860. But how many of you are agreed as to its causes? In biology most investigators are agreed—so it seems to a layman—that species are mutable. But whether they develop in any order and in what order and why, is an entirely different matter. In philosophy —but, alas, in philosophy no one is agreed upon anything except its importance. Can one pretend that the duty of the college teacher is to transmit information of scientific fundamentals when no one knows what they are? But everyone is agreed on the technique that is to be used in discovering them.

Consequently the notion that college instruction can proceed by means of lectures and summarizing of reading and that sort of thing has to be abandoned, as far as possible—and it is not entirely possible. Nothing will ever take the place of a good lecture for purposes of information and inspiration. I am far from deprecating lectures as a whole. But they have without doubt become more customary as the undergraduate bodies have swollen and they cannot train a man in the active pursuit of a problem. They can, however and do give him its answer. To train men, then, in individual research, rather than to soak them in other men's ideas, is one of the aims of the Johns Hopkins course. This automatically involves the second aim, training in thinking.

It seems strange that the use of the intellect should have to be taught, for if anything might seem to be spontaneous it is thinking.

Yet thinking never arises until the mind meets difficulties. As long as things run smoothly, only the intensely curious will bother to study them. As it is easier to learn lessons out of a book, particularly out of a modern fool-proof text book, than to think out one's answers for oneself, freshmen cannot be expected to be as hot in their hunt for knowledge, as, say, Archimedes. Few of them have ever had to think. Why should they begin on entering college?

At this point let me answer an inevitable objection. When I talk about individual research and the need of thinking things out for oneself, I am not pleading for what one of my correspondents calls "educational mysticism". I have no näive belief that a man can reconstruct all of science—or even as much as he needs—out of his inner consciousness, nor am I pleading for a kind of latter-day German transcendentalism. But I am strongly of the opinion that if a man learns how to ride a horse by getting on one, he will have a better seat than if he reads the army manual on equitation. And so, even at the risk of a little make-believe, I think it better to have students exercise their intellectual imagination than to tell them how other people exercise theirs. My one objection to that fine co-operative effort of Mr. Coss and his associates at Columbia, "Introduction to Reflective Thinking", is that it puts the emphasis on the Astronomer and the Physician and the Biblical Critic and not on the Freshman who reads about them.

The Johns Hopkins course is much homelier in its method and certainly much less impressive. But I should judge that it were more plastic. Its instructor is hampered neither by text book nor formal program nor pride. He is perfectly willing to stick to any one problem until it has been sucked dry or lost its savour. As Parmenides said twenty five hundred years ago, "It is all one to me where I begin; for I shall come back there again." It is a relatively small course, elective, with thirty surviving students. Next year there will not be more than twenty-five. It meets three hours a week throughout the year and individual conferences with the student are held about once a fortnight. This year these conferences have been dropped since February, not that they were not useful but that they were too hard on the instructor.

What exactly is the subject matter of the course? It begins with an analysis of belief, disbelief, and doubt, showing the relation between our ideas and their application to our acts. Various expressions of opinion are studied to show their bases in abstract principles, hypotheses, inferences, or the facts of sensation. Each of these bases of belief is then investigated and examples of them are found by the students in as extended a field as possible.

Under the heading of abstract principles such topics as "self evidence"; "common agreement", "logical convenience" are studied. The students are shown the difference between the reason for one's belief in an event and the reason for the event's occurrence. The dangers as well as the necessity of using abstract principles are also discussed.

The study of hypotheses is initiated by a natural scientist and we are very lucky in having a man who has a more than ordinary knowledge of scientific method. This lecture, like all the lectures in the course, is summarized by the students in writing, after which a discussion is held to make clear any points which seemed obscure. We use Benn's criteria of a satisfactory hypothesis as a basis of further inquiry. These criteria are (1) fertility—the hypothesis must permit deduction; (2) consistency with the accepted laws of nature; (3) concreteness—the inferred consequences must be capable of observation.

We spend more time on the facts of sensation since they are the kind of evidence upon which the näive thinker likes to believe he founds his opinions. A member of the Department of Psychology has always been found who is generous enough to explain the difficulties of accurate sense perception and to give examples of some of the commoner optical illusions. Cases of faulty direct testimony from the law are found useful here.

Having more or less shaken the student's faith in his uncontrolled sense organs, we proceed to transfer it to controlled observation. The records of observers, naturalists like Gilbert White of Selbourne, J. H. Fabre, psychological introspectors, and so on, are read to illustrate the varying degrees of control. I have lacked sufficient ingenuity to devise really satisfactory problems in observation and have had to be content with convincing the student of its difficulties. They ought to be receiving training

in it in their laboratory work, but of such matters I shall speak later.

Before proceeding to inference—which we call "the art of consistency"—we discuss why people disagree and how far disagreement is avoidable. Baker and Huntington's now classic "Principles of Argumentation" gives a good start to this study. It finds that disagreement arises from different observations, the use of different authorities, and different inferences. Admission of why and how people have different observations of the same facts and of the use and abuse of authorities follows. This latter topic I shall expand in the future, since, for one reason or another, my freshmen delight in citing as authorities anything from Pathé's Weekly to the Bible, and, as was said at the beginning of this paper, feel that the existence of an authority is sufficient proof of the authority's opinions.

We then turn to inference, beginning with the formulation of premises, definition, and the like. Our treatment of formal consistency is based on a highly schematic interpretation of the calculus of classes. It is, in spite of appearances, Aristotelian logic without Aristotelian metaphysics. The usual formal fallacies are treated and many exercises are given in drawing conclusions from given premises, detecting fallacies, supplying missing premises to incomplete arguments. More of this will be done next year.

Inference is followed by the art of discovery, introduced by two weeks of elementary problems in calculating mathematical probability and two weeks of elementary statistics, given respectively by a member of the Department of Philosophy and the professor of statistics. We then move on to knowledge of the past and the future.

The grand finale of the course is the analysis of a great scientific theory and the great scientific theory to date has always been Darwinism. The analysis is made to show as many of the items studied as possible, to show them all united in one system of thought, observation, experiment, authority, hypothesis, inference, etc. Our program calls for still further work on such topics as "The application of knowledge to the improvement of man's condition", "The limiting conditions of human effort", "Specialization of function and the interdependence of individuals and

nations", "The amendment of human nature", but we have never yet had time to complete it.

Our regular procedure is a lecture to introduce a topic, presenting the necessary facts, a report on this lecture with class discussion, the solving of certain problems relevant to the topic. There is always plenty of class room discussion and no attempt is made by the instructor to make his own infrequent lectures formal. So far this year we have had the following lectures by other members of the faculty.

The Use of Hypotheses in Science
The Use of Scientific Instruments
Perceptual Illusions
The Psychological Examinations
Probability
Elementary Statistics

We have three more scheduled, one on an experimental and statistical study in Psychology, one on the Amendment of Human Nature, one on Darwinism.

Such, briefly, is the subject matter of the course. Before turning the matter over to you for discussion, permit me to append a few criticisms of my own.

First, a course of this sort suffers if the instructor in charge is unable to read all the papers himself and to supplement the hours in the class room by personal conferences. I have read all the papers myself and last semester held conferences regularly. The result was that I was teaching over thirty hours a week and neglecting all my other work. Even if the university were willing that one of its teachers should devote himself entirely to a freshman course of this sort, the teacher would be very unwise to so do. For it means the sacrifice of contact with mature students, upper classmen and graduates, and to a great extent of one's own work. If a teacher makes that sacrifice, he loses contact with what is going on in the learned world and soon unfits himself for teaching the very course which seemed to require this fine idealism. It has seemed to me wiser to preserve my common sense and neglect the course. I say this frankly because I believe that better results could have been attained had the instructor been more devoted.

Second, the course at Johns Hopkins suffers from the presence in it of one or two brilliant students whose radiance has to be tarnished before it blinds themselves, their fellows and their instructor. The process of oxidation is painful to everyone concerned but once achieved works wonders. The victims strive like dogs from then on trying to recover their pristine shine. It also suffers from the presence of five or six young men who are unteachable, who never understand any direction, never do their work on time, don't see any sense in it all, and yet refuse to get out. During the first month or two of each year a great deal of time is wasted over such specimens, for I confess to a morbid curiosity about the insides of peoples' minds. This group annoys but fascinates me and a better teacher would leave them alone and put the same effort on more fruitful labour.

Third, this type of course has theoretically no right to be in a college. Its presence is a confession of failure on the part of college faculties. If college teachers were really teachers and not merely Ph. D.'s, they would make it their business to orient their students. Recognizing the legitimate distinction between high school and collegiate methods, they would adjust their teaching to eliminate the difficulties involved. But it has become almost a tradition in colleges to sneer at the good teacher, to shelve him when it is a question of promotion, to discourage his very existence. That kind of academic snobbishness is one of the causes within the university which has made these orientation courses necessary. Moreover is it not laughable to orient people, just orient them, without pointing them in any particular direction? It makes one think of the cry for preparedness which used to be raised, with no expressed enemy to be prepared against.

As for training in thinking, does a university after all exist for any other purpose? Is not every course given in it supposed to train the student in thinking? I cannot but venture the suspicion that thinking has to be about something—unless like Aristotle's Prime Mover the student is supposed to think about thinking. One can no more just think than one can be just oriented. Now the one complaint of our students is that they don't see where they can apply their lessons. And much of their instructor's imagination has to be directed to telling them where. I hazard the opinion that the faculty as a whole might take upon itself to encourage the

solving of problems in its various courses so that students who have specialized in elementary scientific method might see its relevancy. But if they did a large part of the reason for the course's existence would be destroyed.

Between sixty and seventy colleges and universities now have orientation courses of some sort. This may sound like progress to some of you. To others it must seem like the progress of a chicken whose head has just been cut off. There is activity but it is morbid activity. These courses are introduced to correct an evil. Are college faculties to continue those methods of teaching which have produced in large part the evil?

With this question before you, which is the vital question, permit me to leave the subject, thanking you most heartily for your courtesy in inviting me to address you and in listening to this alien paper.

George Boas

DISCUSSION OF PAPERS BY PROFESSOR CARMAN AND PROFESSOR BOAS

For several years we, at Rutgers, have been working out and giving an initiatory course for freshmen. This has been by the department of history and political Science. The fact of my place on the program this morning would seem to place us among the protagonists for this sort of thing and for the present we do not intend to abandon it but there have been not a few moments when doubt has disturbed our repose.

Are these eye-opening courses for freshmen as eye-opening as we would like them to be? Do they give the freshman that grip upon himself and the fields of knowledge that we would like? It is my judgment that these courses are a part of our post-war mood. Now a large part of that mood is autobiographical. Having gone "over the top" we are settling down to tell the tale. It is not alone a matter of personal biography, though that is pouring forth in an endless stream, for scribblers of all sorts are setting forth this day that is ours—editors, critics, and philosophers, capitalists and socialists, realists and idealists, what-nots and what-nots. It is

social autobiography, introspection. My fears are that maybe we are letting this reminiscent mood play too large a part in our freshmen work.

The Rutger's course as described in the college catalogue proposes first to introduce the student to the controlling ideas and institutions which constitute the framework of our civilization and to the human traits and physical forces which determine such ideas and institutions. In the second place the course proposes to assist the student to develop correct methods of study. In the presentation of the course resort is made not only to the social sciences but to the whole field of learning which contributes to the accepted ideas of the day.

Of the merits of such a course much can be said in its favor but it should be recognized that there are real difficulties in the presentation of such a course. It requires a large teaching staff for the sections should be small and individual students should have a good deal of assistance. Moreover it requires that the instructors be paragons of wisdom. There are such but at the present moment our faculties are not so constituted that there are many of them available for teaching freshman.

While saying again that we have no intention of abandoning our experiments with an eye-opening course, for the present at least, I sometimes feel that perhaps no better initiatory course could be found than medieval history. The reason for that is that in the medieval period is found a civilization, in so many of its significant aspects, in sharp contrast to our own and as the student comes to an appreciation of the contrasted civilization he comes to a realization of contemporary life that can not be gained simply by a study of his own day. In a sense the process is similar to an individual's comprehension of the ego through knowing the alter. Or it is like travel away from home when the unfamiliar sets off the familiar in clearer meaning.

IRVING STODDARD KULL

NEW YORK MEETING

November 28, 1925

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK CITY

Saturday Morning, November 28, 1925, at 9:30 o'clock.

GENERAL TOPIC—*Shall College Credit Be Given to Secondary School Courses in Social Science?* Professor Adam Leroy Jones, Director of Admissions, Columbia University; Mr. Horace Kidger, Head of the Department of Social Studies, Newton (Mass.) High School.

Saturday Noon, Faculty House, Columbia University.

TOPIC—*Some of the Fruits of Historical Study,* Dr. James Harvey Robinson, New School for Social Research, New York City.

SHALL COLLEGE ENTRANCE CREDIT BE GIVEN TO SECONDARY SCHOOL COURSES IN SOCIAL SCIENCES?

In the past few years, courses in Economics, Civics, Community Civics, Problems of Democracy, Social Science and kindred subjects have received vastly increased attention in the schools. Courses in one or another of these have been made mandatory in city and state educational systems. The new orientation courses in the Social Sciences, designated "Contemporary Civilization", "Social and Political Institutions" and the like, which have been introduced in a number of colleges reflect also the growing interest of the public in the question of education in the Social Sciences. It is not necessary here to urge the importance of education in those fields. But if such education is to be carried out most effectively it is useful to consider whether some adjustment, some articulation, may not be made between the work done in the secondary schools and the work of the colleges. In this connection one of the first questions to arise is the question of the acceptibility of secondary school work in such subjects as a part of the offering for admission to college. It is true that many colleges recognize

a margin of free electives and that such free electives may include courses of this type. But many other colleges do not recognize free electives, and moreover acceptance of social science under this head does not satisfy those in the secondary schools who are interested in these subjects. Of late there have been many requests that one or another of these subjects be definitely recognized as a college entrance subject on the same basis as American History or Advanced Mathematics, or a Science or a unit in foreign language.

The first difficulty that meets any college faculty which attempts to consider this proposal is found in the great variety of courses for which recognition is sought. If all schools were agreed upon a given subject matter in this field the problem would be comparatively simple. A given content in economics or in community civics or in the problems of democracy might be considered on its merits but when the claims of each of these and of several others are being urged with equal vigor and when there is no general agreement on the content of any one of them, who is to say which if any is to be considered. Most colleges would hesitate to accept them all, and no one subject has claims so strong as to exclude all the others.

The acceptance of any subject as a college entrance subject is a serious matter. A respectable name does not in itself entitle a subject to such recognition. College faculties rightly ask what the name stands for. They wish to know the character and attainments of the aspirant who seeks admission to the honorable company of recognized college entrance subjects. Moreover a college which takes its entrance requirements seriously must be prepared to examine candidates in any or all entrance subjects which it recognizes,—at least those candidates whose records in given subjects are not of the best. An examination is impossible unless the subject matter be defined.

Is it possible to outline a field within which secondary school pupils may find a course or courses which maybe offered as an entrance unit in social science without restricting unduly the freedom of the schools in their selection of subject matter or leaving the whole so chaotic as to be without real educational significance?

My errand here today is to describe an attempt to accomplish this task. The plan which edshall present is the outcome of the joint labors of a self-appointed committee made up of members of the staff of Columbia University with the co-operation of a member of the faculty of Hunter College. With the exception of the speaker, all the members of the committee were experts in one or more of the fields to be considered. They teach history, economics, government or sociology in college or in secondary school.

Since no one of the social science courses has a monopoly in the schools and since at present a college faculty cannot be expected to recognize *more* than one unit in the field, the committee set out to construct a plan sufficiently flexible to allow the inclusion of any one of several combinations. The plan provides for a number of inter-changeable parts. Specifically four different combinations are possible. The subject matter of the social science courses is to be found in one or more of three following fields: Economics, Government, Sociology.

A given course may include matter from all of them in various proportions, or it may be a combination of any two—likewise in different proportions.

In drawing up the plan, we have tried to bear in mind the content of courses actually given in secondary schools, without forgetting the fact that the Social Sciences are perhaps less fixed in their limits and less complete in many ways than are most other sciences. I quote from the Introduction to the plan:

> "The peculiar nature of the social sciences determines the tentative nature of their "principles". The generalization which make up the body of these principles can be no more permanent than the facts upon which they rest. Relations among industrial institutions are, and have been for the past century, in a constant state of change. And it is important therefore, that the sciences which analyse and interpret these relationships, should maintain their contemporaneity. New generations make absolete the science text-books of their predecessors. Progress of this kind is uneven so that no common practice in the matter of instruction can be discovered. Definitions governing the requirements acceptable for admission to college ought to be sufficiently flexible to meet the situation, special care being taken not to define

subject matter so that sound changes are inhibited or instruction in their new developments in any way limited. In spite of these considerations, it seems necessary to indicate more clearly the nature of the subject matter that would seem to be acceptable and to indicate by sample examinations something of the nature of the standards to be maintained. For this purpose lists of topics and examinations are given.

In preparing these lists of topics and these examinations the committee has kept in mind the need for flexibility and in consequence has usually included a wider range of topics than would be covered in most courses. But it wishes to admit explicitly that even the range included may not be sufficiently wide. The lists are meant only to be suggestive. College entrance requirements ought not to dominate secondary school work, in any of its parts and they ought to be framed with especial care to avoid the prevention of progress in the teaching of social science. It is hoped that this attitude is sufficiently reflected in the suggestions that are made below.

According to the plan, a candidate may earn one unit of credit by any of the following combinations:

A. Modern Problems including economics, Government and Sociology.
B. Economics and Government (Civics)
C. Economics and Sociology
D. Government and Sociology

Each combination presupposes a full year of study in a secondary school, five periods per week, or the equivalent of such a year of study. This year of study may have been divided between any two or three of the subjects mentioned above or it may have been given to a full year course such as is sometimes designated "Problems of Democracy", "Problems of Citizenship", "Social Science", and the like.

In presenting an outline of the subject matter of the proposed entrance requirements, we have offered a suggestive list of topics under each of the three main divisions of the subject matter. These topics are very general in character. As stated above, the lists are not intended to be exhaustive nor is it expected that any course of study shall have included them all. All of them are to be found in one or another of the texts in current use.

Under the head of Economics there are thirty-four topics. Their general character is indicated by the following which have been selected at random:

1. The different ways of using goods
2. Physical science and the production of goods
3. The problems of marketing
4. Problems consequent on the concentration and urbanization of industry
5. Domestic and foreign trade
6. The study of wages, profits, interest, and rent
7. Poverty and comfort; their extent and modificability
8. The co-operative movement
9. The rise and perpetuation of machine production

Similarly under the heading of Government we have presented eleven main topics of which the following four are examples:

1. Why government exists; its part in social organization.
2. The individual citizen's contact with the framework of government: suffrage, including naturalization; the "long" and "short" ballot ideas of popular control.
3. Activities in behalf of human welfare, such as education, health, public recreation facilities, relief of poverty and dependency
4. American-Foreign Affairs, including the way war is declared, the way treaties are made, the distinction between the foreign service and the consular services and the administration of territories and dependencies.

Finally again, under the heading of Sociology, we have presented eleven main topics of which the following four are examples:

1. The make-up and organization of the social population.
2. Population growth, density and migration.
3. Group solidarity, Social pressure, taboo and sanction.
4. Problems of democracy and of social self-control.

It is our purpose later to prepare a supplementary list of topics which should, if possible, be treated from the standpoint of two or more of the separate subjects. Such a list of topics might well form the core of a general course in Problems of Democracy or Social Science.

A mere list of topics does not in itself give much indication of how much is expected of the student. With a view to remedying

that defect we have included, for illustrative purposes, a partial sample examination:

"The Examination will be in three parts:

PART I, will consist of several blocks of questions from which the student may select those dealing with those parts of the subject matter which he has studied.

PART II, will consist of a larger number of questions designed to test the range of his preparation.

PART III, will give him an opportunity to discuss at length a problem which will have been studied from the standpoint of at least two of the subjects which he has studied."

In PART I, each block contains a question from each of the three main fields. The student is instructed to answer one question from each block, selecting a question from one of the fields to which he has given his principle attention.

PART I

Block A

1. What constitutes a good tax? Give illustrations.
2. How did political parties originate in the U. S.? What is the nature of their organization and how do they operate?
3. In what ways has modern industrialism affected American family life?

Block B

4. What are the advantages and dangers in the use of paper money? How do governments protect themselves from these dangers? Give illustrations in the history of any country where government paper money has been used.
5. Describe the organization of the League of Nations? What definite steps has the League taken to insure peace?
6. State the arguments pro and con on the question of the establishment of a Federal department of Education.

Block C

7. What are the arguments for and against government owned railroads?

8. Describe three types of city government. Compare their relative advantages and disadvantages.
9. Sketch the history of child labor in the U. S. What are your opinions on the proposed amendments?

The second part of the examination may be made up of questions of the Yes and No type. In other words, it may be made up of a long series of questions which the student may answer by "Yes" and "No" or by the plus and minus signs or by some symbol. This part of the examination is, as I have already said, designed primarily to test the range of the student's preparation. This purpose can be served by questions of other types. The plan does not *necessarily* call for questions of the yes or no type. These are used simply for illustrative purposes in the outline presented. It is expected that in each examination there will be about one hundred questions of this type. In the sample examination which we have prepared, we have first, a list of questions designed for the student who has had a general course. The following are samples of the fifty questions which are given in the outline: The student is directed to place a plus sign to the left of the statement if it is true, a zero sign if it is false.

"The civilization of a people begins with the acquisition of valuable knowledge and skill that can be transmitted from one generation to the next.

In sharp contrast to a hundred years ago inequality of the distribution of the necessities of life does not exist today.

The social heredity of the individual of today is vastly different from what it was in 1500.

Differences between nations are not based on language, customs and traditions, but upon color and race.

Competition is no longer to be found in public utilities.

Because most city water systems are privately owned, they are not subject to government regulation.

A reasonable system of taxation should be based solely upon public needs.

The only sound justification of private property is social welfare.

As cities increase in size the per capita cost of protecting life and property decreases.

Classes and class interests are not found in purely democratic countries.

According to the Constitution, interstate commerce is regulated by the several states.

A presidential veto can be overriden by the U. S. Supreme Court."

If, instead of having a general course, the student has had a course which is simply a combination of two or three separate subjects, he will take the questions under the divisions of the field which he has specially studied. A separate list of questions will be given in each of the three fields, Economics, Government, and Sociology.

The third part of the examination is made up of a few questions each of which is to be discussed fully from the standpoint of at least two of the separate fields. In sample examination, the following questions are given:

1. How do you account for the rapid growth of cities during the last ten years? What are some of the problems that have arisen because of this growth?
2. Explain: "Within our border we have a race problem more serious than that of any other nation in the world: the negro problem". (Muzzey). What are the social, political and economic aspects of this problem?
3. What are the economic, social and political arguments for the restriction of immigration?

We recognize fully that the plan as presented will not meet the full approval of anyone. I wish to say, however, that it is not merely a happy thought, uncritically put forth. After several months of discussion, a tentative plan was prepared. It was presented for the consideration of a large group of secondary school teachers of Social Science who were in attendance on courses in the Sumemer Session of Columbia University, last July. As a

result of these discussion, certain minor modifications in the plan were made. It was later presented at a general meeting of the Social Science Departments in Columbia University, and after considerable discussion, some additional modifications were made.

The plan is frankly experimental, but we are very hopeful that however imperfect it may be, it may still be found worthy of a trial. It has seemed to our Committee that there will be a better chance to make progress if some sort of plan can be put into effect, with the understanding that when modifications can be agreed upon, they will be made

ADAM LEROY JONES

SHALL COLLEGE CREDIT BE GIVEN TO SECONDARY SCHOOL COURSES IN SOCIAL SCIENCE?

I appreciate the courtesy which prompted this Association to ask me to address it. It has become more and more apparent to many educators that, while Boston may be the "hub of the Universe" it must look to some educational institutions outside for co-operation if the hub is not to remain stationary.

It gives me a peculiar satisfaction to speak to the members of this organization because I realize that they are thinking along liberal lines the educational future. Your program subject today is a striking illustration that the college men of your Association are seeking to get the secondary schoolman's point of view.

To my mind one of the chief functions of the secondary school is to encourage thinking. In a questionnaire which I received recently, in regard to the work done by our department in Grade IX, the query was raised as to the specific purpose to be served by the work of that year in social studies. My reply is that we aim to attain a certain attitude of mind. More than content, our work in community civics is to secure an attitude of mind. We have an outline of the work for that grade. To date no two divisions have covered the same content. Nor do I desire it. The sections are given a chance to select their own projects.

However, though there is a dissimilarity in content, the unseen guidance of the instructor is directing each of those sections, no matter how original the project which they are undertaking, or no matter how socialized the recitation, to frame an attitude of mind. We aim at a constructive, discriminating attitude of mind—one which sees the other fellow's point of view — one which is synonomous with good citizenship.

I must admit that, when your secretary wrote to me asking me to speak on the content of a social science course in secondary schools, I was both amazed and confused. I was amazed because I was lead to infer that a Columbia man was referring to our work as "Social Science". Now, I feel reasonably certain that another Columbia man had expressed his views a few years ago at a meeting of the National Educational Association at Atlantic City to the effect that the word "social" had an ominous sound and might be wisely omitted and that history, government economics, sociology and allied subjects were not "science". However I laid my amazement to my lack of progressiveness and decided that possibly social studies and social science were running a neck to neck race and it was not for me to pick the winner. I began thinking over what had come to me in my experience and observation which might merit the indulgence of my audience. My mind reviewed our four year course in social studies. When an outline arrived suggesting questions for college entrance in social science or "a full year course such as is sometimes designated "Problems of Democracy", "Problems of Citizenship", "Social Science" etc. I recognized that I had been confused and that the fourth year work was what was under discussion.

A high school principal recently said to me, "What you social-studies men need to do is to agree on a name for that Grade XII work." He was right.

I have already pointed out that the aim of community civics, as I conceive it, is a right attitude of mind. The aim of every course in social studies in each of the years of high school should be precisely the same or the course will be an absolute failure. More than content, is the desire to use knowledge for co-operative endeavor. Of course desire must be ably supported by knowledge, but knowledge alone without ideals is futile. The climax of the training for a right attitude of mind is what we call "Problems

of Democracy." No senior of a secondary institution is receiving his maximum of thought-provoking instruction which may result in habitual mental alertness in considering the problems of the day and which may result in constructive citizenship, if he is deprived of this course. It is not fair to have a pupil fitting for college excluded from a course which will be of real value if he actually goes to college and an undoubted asset to him and his community if he never reaches college. Columbia is to be congratulated upon recognizing this fact.

I remember well a talk which a professor of economics of Harvard University gave before the New England History Teachers' Association some fifteen years ago. The general subject of the meeting dealt with economics as a college entrance subject for admission to Harvard. The professor stated, in very clear language, that economics was not a proper college entrance subject and that he did not want his pupils "spoiled " for future courses in college economics by their dabbling in the subject in secondary schools.

I read recently an editorial in The Boston Transcript which stated that economics was to be introduced into the schools along with the other "ics" and "ologies" to crowd out the three Rs. Perhaps, in due season, the Transcript will hear of Problems of Democracy.

And yet might not both the professor and the Transcript be correct. Economics, as once taught, had only passing justification in a secondary program. Both the methods and the text books used were hardly warranted to arouse enthusiasm.

Just what started the movement for a senior course in Problems of Democracy, it is hard to say. Perhaps the wave of war patriotism had much to do with it. Whatever the cause, the impetus in its favor has been increasingly strong. We have often heard adverse criticism of the high school graduate. He is accused of not functioning. He has spent four years in education and cannot make any intelligent comment upon matters which should be of vital concern to every thoughtful educated citizen. Problems of Democracy built upon a foundation of modern history and American history aims to give an attitude of mind. It aims to help a pupil reach conclusions which are the result of sane inter-

pretation of fundamental economic, sociological and governmental truth.

It would be amusing indeed for me to appear at Columbia to discuss "interest and effort" in education. Yet I can not emphasize too much the fact that the only way to make Problems of Democracy effective is to make it vital. There must be an interesting approach. The approach arises often out of a news item concerning which there is apparent divergence of views in the group.

A pupil hears a discussion at home. He does not hear an economic definition of terms given or a theoretical history gone over before the issue at stake is approached. Why should there not be a similar discussion in the class room. Let the definitions and generalizations come out of the united effort of the class, Original definitions, being the property of their makers, and expressed in terms with which their makers are familiar, are fixed more indelibly than are parrot like reproductions of another person's experience and wording.

What more opportune time could be found than the fall of 1924 for a discussion of the powers of the federal judiciary, for an inquiry into its right of review of legislative measures, or for a consideration of whether the power of the court presents a menace.

The newspaper interviews and prognostications as to tax reduction measures which will be considered by Congress when it meets in its approaching session set the stage for intelligent search for information in order that the pupil may comprehend what it is all about. In the first place, who is this Mr. Green of the Ways and Means Committee? How did he get his position? What is that committee doing to be holding sessions now? Congress is not in session. When are the sessions of congress? Should they be changed? What is the Norris Bill? Does a committee meet when a congress is not in session? And then—what are the provisions of our income tax? Why should the tax be changed again? What is a fair revision? Gradually Jevons' Criteria are evolved. This tax leads to a consideration of other kinds of taxes. Now isn't that a delightful mixture of Government and Economics? And yet—who would wish to separate them and to consider them under their separate captions of Government and Economics?

Mr. Lewis of the Ethical Culture School wrote a splendid article in the school paper a couple or so years ago. He discussed the types of history teachers which I shall summarize as 1. the text-book-followers 2. the analogy manufacturers and 3. the radical teachers. Under the latter class, he placed project directors. I rather disagree with him concerning the last grouping. While Mr. Lewis advocates the radical teachers, he is not justified in calling them by the name "radical". A person who seizes upon vital, interesting situations should certainly be rewarded with some other name than "radical".

If we were to satisfy the methodical mind of the analogy manufacturer we would discuss the governmental phase involving the sessions of congress at its proper place in the definitely arranged outline and have the teacher parade in, at the proper moment, the semblance which the lesson in hand bears to the existing conditions in the world at the time.

In our teaching, the entire aim is to capitalize interest, and with the aid of interest to discover basic principals. A teacher who pursues the Problems of Democracy in any set order is not attaining maximum results. It will be surprising what a field of knowledge can be explored where a vital project directs action. The feet go forth much more willingly in pleasant pastures than in those where there is compulsion and no interest.

But it is said by the college authorities that this wandering while pleasant, and, perchance profitable, is not directed towards definite ends which can be used for college preparation and examination. Though some may store up a veritable wealth of information, others may have merely a superficial understanding. In other words, information may be sketchy. There must be a basic knowledge of facts.

There were two main courses open to the college authorities if the so called social science or Problems of Democracy were to be used as a unit for college entrance. The first was that a somewhat complete description of material to be used and ground to be covered be published in the college catalogue and that the subject be accepted outright as a certified subject or that, under the comprehensive plan, the social science be accepted upon approval of the high school authorities as a non-examination unit. The other method was examination.

The latter method is evidently the one uppermost in the minds of the authorities at Columbia. Naturally, if there is to be an examination it is essential that there be a fair examination for all-concerned. From the college viewpoint and from the secondary administration viewpoint, the test must be of such a nature that it represents additional acquistion of knowledge. No one, with the possible exception of a misnamed student would desire the possibility of having a course in American History such a panacea for college entrance ills as to afford relief in securing college entrance credits in American history, civil government and Problems of Democracy. On the other hand, the student of Problems of Democracy should not be confronted, when he enters the examination room with a paper on which are questions which represent the compiled summaries of specialists in sociology, economics, and government, couched in phraseology which may be more accurate than understandable. I suppose that sentence provokes the mental reaction which calls for the exclamation, "If you criticize our work adversely, give us a sample of what you consider fair". That is a just proposition. When a show down is called for, it is hard to meet the demand constructively. One of the aims of the senior year work is to elucidate fundamental truths and principles so that the average citizen, who graduates from a secondary school, will have a working knowledge of these basic facts rather than a scholarly phraseology covering the same ground. Of course, there exists in all lines of endeavor "shop phraseology" as there inevitably must. Let us try to keep the phraseology in the background as much as possible.

At first, when I glanced over the unamended list of suggested examination questions for admission to college in Social Science, I must admit that I felt they would dampen the spirits of the aspiring candidate. In my opinion the supplementary and substitutive questions are a very considerable improvement.

I was interested indeed in looking over the true and false questions of Part II especially those which a candidate presenting Problems of Democracy was called upon to answer. My feeling is that my pupils, at least could not pass them. However, if it were permitted for my pupils to take the questions under Economics and those under Government, I feel more certain that they would make a creditable showing. I fear that my groups would make a

sorry showing on the sociology questions due, in large measure, to the fact that they have never met the material in that form and also to the fact that some of the material has not come to their attention through the medium of a vital situation.

In all this outlining and questioning might not the Social science faction compromise with the Problems of Democracy group sufficiently to have the illustrative questions stated in the form of real, broad, pulsating, problems? If it were so stated, a generous supply of small though pertinent problems might be at hand sufficient for the time and needs of an examination period for college entrance.

At this point I want to cite my experience with the true and false type of examination. I have been in the habit of using the letters N. O. and O. K. instead of true and false as a fleeting glance of a neighbor does not so readily reveal the difference between N. O. and O. K. as it does between true and false. Such questions are searching and inclusive in their character but, to my way of thinking, they are not devoid of evil results.

I have known pupils to retain in their minds a false statement, which it has been almost impossible to dislodge, because they insist that such and such a fact is true because the instructor said it was. To my mind, the examination which calls for filling in blanks in statements or for a one or two word reply to a direct question is psychologically more desirable than a yes or no test.

The question for discussion is "Should Social Science Be Used as a Subject for College Entrance?" I will close my remarks by stating frankly why I think that it should be so used. I trust you will pardon me if in so doing, I draw from my personal experience.

At Newton, we take the matter of citizenship very seriously as do many other places. In grade IX whether in the senior high school building or in our new junior high schools, community civics is required of all. The state law of Massachusetts requires the teaching of American history in grade XI or XII. At Newton, we require it, in all our courses, except the college preparatory in grade XI as a five period per week subject. In all courses, except the college preparatory group, Problems of Democracy is required five periods per week in grade XII. In other words, most pupils in the college preparatory courses are "out of luck." If a person in such a course finds that he is not going to college by

his junior year, we immediately fix up his program to fit in both American history and Problems of Democracy if we possibly can. Some institutions of higher learning accept Problems of Democracy as a certified unit. Hence we have a number of pupils who are going to college who elect Problems of Democracy. I might add that, in order to keep this work from becoming superficial, we place in the hands of each pupil a copy of an economics text book, written by a college professor and containing fundamentally sound economic theory, also a government text book. In addition, there is given out a Problems of Democracy text book, at least one to every two pupils. Furthermore, the pupils have access in the school library to reference books on sociology and on current problems besides having the opportunity to consult there magazines and newspapers.

Such a course should be included as a college entrance subject because it is emphatically unfair to college preparatory students to lose the training which is given. The content gives samiliarity with facts which should aid in further college acquisition by serving as a background. But aside from factual knowledge, such a course should give a broader outlook, a more discriminating citizenship and a keener sense of co-operation whether in the outside world or with college environment.

HORACE KIDGER

SOME OF THE FRUITS OF HISTORICAL STUDY

(A brief summary by Dr. Robinson of his address.)

Fifteen years ago Henry Adams, who was both thoughtful and wealthy, distributed without price an astonishing little volume called *A Letter to American Teachers of History*. In a very learned and ingenious way Mr. Adams gave expression to the discouragement which not uncommonly overtakes a sensitive and critical soul after three score and ten years of experience with the ways of man. The chief indictment that he brings against historical teachers is that they do not rekon with Lord Kelvin's discoveries in regard to the universal tendency in Nature to the dissipation of mechanical energy. This applies to man who, like all other things, is bound inexorably to run down. Mr. Adams could see plenty of indications of this universal trend toward degradation, whether he compared the architectural achievements of the Greeks or of the thirteenth century builders, with those of today, or considered what he thought to be a pitiful flattening out of our American democracy since his grandfather was president of the United States.

Man's preposterous and fatal error, Mr. Adams claims, is the old assumption that the human intellect is "an ultimate, independent, self-producing, self-sustaining, incorruptible solvent of all earlier and lower energies, and incapable of degradation or dissolution. . . . . [This] assertion has led to physical violence and intellectual extravagance without limit, so that history shows man as alternately insane with his own pride of intellect and shuddering with horror at its bloody consequences." (p. 113) He adds that a teacher who used American history to illustrate the workings of the law of energy-degradation would likely lose his position. This observation of Mr. Adams' is surely true beyond a preadventure.

Last August Professor Clarence Alvord published in THE AMERICAN MERCURY his *Musings of an Inebriated Historian*. "I am," he says "reaching the sear and withered age of my life [having reached the fifty-seventh milestone as a matter of record] most of which has been passed in the repressive and artificial atmosphere of an American university, where I practiced the art of a professor of history. As becomes a man of my profession I have

performed the acts that were expected of me and in great quantities ..... Shortly before the Eighteenth Amendment went into effect, Lucifer or St. Anthony, or some spirit of the *Zeitgeist*, offered me a cocktail mixed with ingredients of powerful efficacy. The gin was distilled in the hellish fires of the World War, the French vermouth was the essence of propaganda, the sweet Italian vermouth was the aroma of pragmatic philosophy, and the orange juice was squeezed from the cynical soul of Henry Adams."

It is an observed psychological fact that cocktails will at times, produce depression of spirit; and so it fell out in Alvord's case. He found himself thinking of Job, clothing himself in sackcloth, and piling ashes on his head. Historians had not only failed to foresee the World War but they had weakly yielded to every foolish delusion which war brings. Some of them outdid the superpatriots. (He forgets that even if their study of history aroused misgivings in teachers there was no appropriate occasion to express them, and at the same time continue to hold their positions). "The thought comes to my mind," continues Professor Alvord, "that we historians have cultivated some of the weeds that have been taking root and spreading. In the years of despair there reached my ears an accusation from one of our colleagues, Henry Morse Stephens; 'Woe unto us, professional historians, professional historical students, professional teachers of history, if we cannot see, written in blood, in the dying civilization of Europe, the dreadful result of exaggerated nationalism, as set forth in the patriotic histories of some of the eloquent historians of the nineteenth century!" *No Fruit, nothing but leaves*, is Alvord's verdict. It would seem that historical writers and teachers are as yet hardly less simpleminded than most people, and almost as easily imposed upon. Moreover there is rather more pressure brought to bear upon them than upon other classes of teachers to confirm, or at least not openly question, the comfortable findings of potent Ignorance. The historical convictions of the public and of political orators are warm and confident, for they are never brought into contact with any chilling evidence. But I wonder if the cold evidence is really so devastating as Mr. Adams and Professor Alvord conjecture?

When Professor Cheyney came to give his presidential address before the American Historical Association a couple of years ago

took for his subject certain tendencies or "laws" which he thought emerged into one's mind from a study of the past. These were six in number: (1) Historical continuity (2) the impermanence of nations (3) The general unity and interaction of all portions of humanity (4) the steady prevailing of democracy (5) the enlarging of freedom (6) the decrease of gratuitous cruelty and increase of kindness. I should say that the first three appear always to have been true of humanity; the last three seem to be characteristic of the past two or three centuries.

All these tendencies appear to me to be unquestionable and essentially important for teachers to understand and to call to the attention of their students. As for the last one, it seems to me questionable whether there has been any considerable decrease in human cruelty, except in its more spectacular manifestations. But this is a matter well worth considering.

I might accept my friend Cheyney's invitation to add a few other "laws" of history. There is the law of the sacredness of the familiar and of holy routine when they are called in question; and like unto it, the law of man's suspicion of innovators. There is the law of the timely rationalizing of institutions and habits when they come to be criticized. One can observe this in the case of religious intolerance, witchcraft, slavery and nowadays in the matter of war. One might suggest a law of wine, women and song, for all these have played an essential part in the development of mankind if we could but get at the intimate facts. There is a neglected law that whatever title, however, exalted, we may give to a person he will remain a human being in nine tenths of his daily conduct, thought, prejudice, jealousy and initial ignorance. And lastly, it is another law that what passes for history in any generation is what Voltaire called *une fable convenue*—only one of the many, many stories which could be told of man's doings,—and usually an uncommonly dull one.

Ask yourselves, what do you know of the past of mankind? What do you know of man today for that matter? We read newspapers, magazines, stories and sociologies—God save the mark!—go to plays and have a tiny bit of personal experience in our contacts with a very limited variety of fellow creatures of whom we know very little indeed. We can not tell what our most intimate acquaintances feel or think or even what, if they have good luck,

they sometimes do. And if we know not our brother whom we have seen how should we have much worth while to say about Alexander the Great or St. Augustine?

Now I am afraid that you are some of you looking for advice as to the manner of discovering the hidden fruits of history and spreading them before the watering minds of the young. A day or two ago I received a letter asking "Will you be kind enough to recommend a good book or pamphlet upon how to teach American history according to modern methods to third grade children." One would take it that American history was a drug with a definite formula to be administered according to the age of the patient and the directions of the doctor. It is our worst embarrassment that this notion has grown up. We find it everywhere in text books and in the announcement of courses.

To me history is nothing more or less than all the things that we can find out about the doings, feelings, thoughts, aspirations, loves, hates, achievements, defeats, discoveries and mistakes of men and women. One can call it a *treasury* or a *jungle*. If a treasury, a selection must be made from its limitless wealth; if a jungle, there are innumerable new trails to be blazed besides the dusty old road which most of us feel bound to travel. Many of us are tired of it and little fruit seems to be left on the bereft trees which line it.

For a time there was a brave demand for objective history. But is not objective history merely history without an object? Why not dare to recall things in the past with some aim and purpose? We do not have to be disheartened by the second law of thermo-dynamics, which is already looking a little seedy even to the physicists; and if we acknowledge that historians and history teachers are subject to the usual emotions of mankind the sudden discovery of this truth will not produce the sharp depression which Professor Alvord describes. I have my own little comforting formula. History is for me those recollections of man's origin and past behavior and thought which enable me to see the more clearly how he comes to act and think in the strangely successful and unsuccessful ways he now does. This is my way of reconciling the longing of a scientifically-minded person to take things as they are, and at the same time set forth an edifying tale.

History to me is just memories of what books have told me of human conduct, convictions, habits and thoughts. If one read the essays of the late Dr. MacLaurin he will recollect how Joan of Arc was a tom boy, how Henry VIII had the black pox, how personally unbearable was James I, and how dirty was Frederick the Great. If he reads Pepys *Diary* in the full original he sees what it was to be an aspirant for office in the time of Charles II and how many sins one could confess in bad French. I long ago tired of the odds and ends which text book compilers have had the nerve to call "the leading facts", "essentials", or "elements" of history. For I found out that they were not anything of the sort. So I should suggest that you just find out as much as may be about the past; enrich your recollections and then, when you come to teach or write, call forth such of your memories as you think might be worth the attention of your audience. It is better to be mislead now and then and to mislead—far better than to make history a profitless subject which leaves us just as considerable fools after we study it as we were in the beginning.

History is the "living past", to use Mr. Marvin's illuminating term. It must live in the teacher and writer, and be buzzing around in his head even when he is off on a vacation. For what does not interest us is not likely to interest any of our listeners. So unless you are personally excited by your historical recollections there is something the matter. A living idea, like a living cell, multiplies. At first one, it becomes two, and then four, then eight, and then sixteen and pretty soon it may be pushing out into space with the velocity of light. History books are a poor place to look for history. While the idea that we study history to understand the present has now become fairly generally recognized it is as yet rather an ambition or ideal than an achievement. And this for the simple reason that the old selection from the treasury of the past is still sanctified in examination papers and the old route, beaten hard by many weary feet, is still marked out in text books. And great will be the labor of establishing new paths that will lead to high points of vantage from which the human welter may be viewed with increasing understanding?

JAMES HARVEY ROBINSON

TREASURER'S REPORT FOR 1924–1925

Receipts

Cash balance May 9, 1924	$ 417.83
Dues Collected during the year	473.10
Advertisements in Proceedings	170.10
Sale of Proceedings	94.00
Interest on Bank Deposits	12.31
Total Receipts	$1,154.74

EXPENDITURES

Expenses for speakers at meetings	42.20
Other expenses of meetings— printed matter distributed; dinner guests, tips	29.85
Printing programs	34.75
Office equipment	1.78
Postage and stationery	77.50
Multigraphing notices	26.00
Clerical assistance	93.12
Publishing Proceedings	337.10
Printing membership list	14.75
One third share of expenses of Committee on Bibliography	26.81
Balance on hand	470.88
	$1,154.74

Lena C. Van Bibber,

Secretary-Treasurer.

May 1, 1925:

Audited and Found Correct,

Witt Bowden,

R. W. Kelsey,

Auditors.

REPORT OF MEMBERSHIP

November 28, 1925

Members enrolled in 1925		
Paid-up membership		
Reported at May Meeting	317	
Recorded members, paid since May Meeting	127	
New Members joined since May Meeting	56	
Total paid-up membership		509
Non-paying members		9
Members in arrears		
For one year	41	
For two years	23	
Total		64
Total enrolled		573
Members withdrawn in 1925		
Deceased	4	
Resigned	17	
Not located	12	
Dropped from roll, according to constitutional requirement	14	
Total withdrawn	47	

LENA C. VAN BIBBER,

Secretary-Treasurer.

CONSTITUTION

Article I. *Name and Purpose*

This Association shall be known as the "Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland". Its purpose shall be two-fold: First: to advance the study and teaching of history and *other Social Sciences* through discussion and publication and, secondly, to promote personal acquaintance among teachers and students in these fields.

Article II. *Membership*

Any one interested in the study or teaching of history and *other Social Sciences* in the Middle States and Maryland shall be eligible to membership. Application for membership shall be accepted or rejected by a vote of the Council at its meeting next following the receipt of such application.

Article III. *Officers*

Section 1. There shall be a President, a Vice-President and a Secretary-Treasurer, elected by ballot at the annual spring meeting. Their duties shall be those usually attached to their respective offices. The Secretary-Treasurer shall carefully preserve records of all meetings of the Council and of all business sessions of the Association; and these and other important records and correspondence shall be kept on file in the office of the Secretary-Treasurer.

Section 2. The general direction of the affairs of the Association shall be vested in a council, consisting of the three officers, the former presidents of the Association, two members selected annually and one delegate each appointed annually by such local associations as the Council may from time to time designate for this purpose.

Article IV. *Meetings*

The annual meeting of the Association shall be held at the time and place designated by the Council.

Article V. *Fiscal Year and Dues*

The fiscal year shall begin with the annual business meeting. The membership fee shall be one dollar, payable annually in April for the ensuing year. Members who have not paid their dues for the current year shall not be entitled to receive the publications of the Association while in arrears, and members who are two years in arrears and have received three notices of their indebtedness shall be regarded as having forfeited their membership.

Article VI. *Amendments*

This Constitution may be amended at any regular meeting by a two-thirds vote of those present, notice of the proposed amendment having been given *in advance of the meeting.*

President

JAMES LYNN BARNARD

Director of Social Studies, Pennsylvania State Department Of Public Instruction

Vice President

ANNE BUSH Mac LEAR

Hunter College

Secretary-Treasurer

LENA C. VAN BIBBER

Maryland State Normal School, Towson, Maryland

Additional Members of Council

Lucy Salmon, Vassar College
C. M. Andrews, Yale University
J. H. Robinson, New School for Social Research, New York City
C. A. Herrick, Girard College
Eleanor L. Lord, Smith College
H. V. Ames, University of Pennsylvania
James Sullivan, Assistant Commissioner for Secondary Education, Albany, N.Y.
Edgar Dawson, Hunter College
A. E. McKinley, Editor, Historical Outlook
Henry Johnson, Teachers College, Columbia University
J. M. Vincent, Johns Hopkins University
Jessie C. Evans, Wm. Penn High School, Philadelphia
M. S. Brown, New York University
L. R. Schuyler, College of the City of New York
D. C. Knowlton, Lincoln School of Teachers College, New York
A. K. Heckel, Lafayette College, Easton, Pa.
R. W. Kelsey, Haverford College, Haverford, Pa.
J. M. Gambrill, Teachers College, Columbia University
F. E. Moyer, DeWitt Clinton High School, New York City
John H. Latané, Johns Hopkins University

Elected

Samuel B. Howe, South Side High School, Newark, N. J.
Warren Renninger, Central High School, Philadelphia, Pa.

Delegates from Conferences

Kathryn E. C. Carrigan, New Jersey Association of Teachers of Social Studies
Mildred M. Coughlin, History Teacher's Association of Maryland
Clarence W. Miner, New York Council for Social Studies
Clara G. Dilks, History Club of Philadelphia

LIST OF MEMBERS

Note:—The arrangement in this list is: (1) name, (2) official address, (3) residence. The city or postoffice address is given only once if it is the same for both (2) and (3).

Adams, Charles E., Polytechnic Institute, Baltimore, Md , 3211 Belmont Ave.
Adams, Gladys, West Philadelphia High School for Girls, Philadelphia, Pa.
Addis, Barbara, State Normal School, New Britain, Conn.
Adriance, Robert I., East Orange High School, East Orange, N. J., 178 N. Walnut St.
Albert, Grace, Baldwin School, Bryn Mawr, Pa., The College Inn.
Alderfer, Clement J., Supervising Principal of Schools, Broad St., Port Allegany, Pa.
Allen, Freeman H., Colgate University, Hamilton, N. Y.
Allen, Joseph Dana, Headmaster, Polytechnic Preparatory Country Day School, Brooklyn, N. Y., 200 Hicks St.
Allison, William H., Colgate University, Hamilton, N. Y., 15 E. Kendrick Ave.
Ames, Herman V., Dean of Graduate School, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa., 210 S. 37 St.
Ammarell, Raymond Robert, Barringer High School, Newark, N. J., 41 Llewellyn Ave., Hawthorne, N. J.
Anderson, Grace Estey, Miss Beard's School, 112 Berkeley Ave., Orange, N. J.
Andrew, L. Elizabeth, 3305 Windsor Mill Road, Baltimore, Md.
Andrews, Ada Mary, 3305 Windsor Mill Road, Baltimore, Md.
Andrews, Charles M., Yale University, New Haven, Conn.
Andrews, Elizabeth Agnes, Miss Wright's School, Bryn Mawr., Pa., 307 Berkeley Road, Merion, Pa.
Andrews, Grace, Theodore Roosevelt High School, New York City, 65 Jefferson Ave., Brooklyn, N. Y.
Arthur, L. Louise, Bryant High School, New York City, 555 Academy St., Long Island City, N. Y.
Ayers, Amy M., 950 Salem Ave., Elizabeth, N. J.
Bachrach, Helen, Western High School, Baltimore, Md.
Bacon, Edna Lorine, East Side High School, Newark, N. J., 87 Fourth Ave.
Bader, Harriet, Maryland State Normal School, Towson, Md.
Bagley, Edith A., Kensington High School, Philadelphia, Pa., 1300 Spruce St.
Bagley, William C., Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.
Baird, Mildred, South Philadelphia High School for Girls, Philadelphia, Pa., 547 Forrest Ave., Drexel Hill

Baker-Crothers, Hayes, Hanover, N. H.
Baldwin, Frances Elizabeth, Hood College, Frederick, Md., 147 W. Lanvale St., Baltimore, Md.
Baldwin, James Fosdick, Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, N. Y., 160 College Ave.
Bamberger, Florence Eilau, John Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md., 2206 Park Ave.
Bamberger, Stella H., 2206 Park Ave., Baltimore, Md.
Barker, John B., Baltimore City College, Baltimore, Md., 4127 Park Heights Ave.
Barnard, James Lynn, Director of Social Studies, Pennsylvania Dept. of Public Instruction, Harrisburg, Pa., 1528 N. Second St.
Barrick, Willina, Lincoln High School, Jersey City, N. J., 2540 Boulevard.
Barth, Laura Florence, J. B. Stetson Junior High School, Philadelphia, Pa., 2020 Frankford Ave.
Bassett, Janet, Monte Bella School, Baltimore, Md.
Bates, Abby B., Morris High School, New York City, 1421 University Ave.
Beard, Charles A., New Milford, Conn., 27 W. 67 St., New York City.
Beardslee, Sara E., Temple University High School, Philadelphia, Pa., 4623 Newhall St., Germantown.
Beatman, Augustus S., Julia Richman High School, New York City., 527 W. 121 St.
Beaumont, Jr., André Alden, New York University, New York City.
Bechtel, Mary D., Bryn Mawr, Pa.
Belcher, Katherine F., Barringer High School, Newark, N. J.
Bennett, Martha Crosby, Morris High School, New York City, 45 Tiemann Place.
Bigelow, Mrs. Horace, The Scarborough School, Scarborough-on-Hudson, N. Y., 12 W. 75 St., New York City.
Billingslea, Elizabeth, Towson High School, Towson, Md.
Birdsall, Jean, Skidmore College, Saratoga Springs, N. Y., 172 Spring St.
Bixler, Floyd S., 206 Spring Garden St., Easton, Pa.
Black, Anna M., Shaw Junior High School, 54 and Warrington Ave., Philadelphia, Pa.
Blake, Julia E., Georgiancourt College, Lakewood, N. J.
Boettner, E. Ames, 300 Park Ave., Baltimore, Md.
Bolzan, Emma L., William Penn High School, Philadelphia, Pa.
Boring, Lydia T., West Philadelphia High School for Girls, Philadelphia, Pa.
Bosley, Esther May, 715 College Ave., Elmira, N. Y., Sparks, Md.
Bowden, Witt, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa., 239 S. 44 St.
Bowles, Luanna J., Westtown School, Westtown, Pa.
Boyce, Harriet L., Passaic High School, Passaic, N. J.
Boyt, S. Ethel, West Philadelphia High School for Girls, Philadelphia, Pa., 210 Park Ave., Swarthmore, Pa.
Brebner, J. B., Columbia University, N. Y. C.
Bradshaw, Bessie E., High School, Cambridge, Md., 204 Mill St.
Brandenburg, Emily Jane, 110 Augusta Ave., Baltimore, Md.
Brewer, William M., 1010 Fairmont St., N. W., Washington, D. C.

Briggs, Elizabeth, Horace Mann School, New York City. The Bancroft., 509 W. 121 St.
Brooks, Rebecca B., Eastern High School, Baltimore, Md., 2417 N. Calvert St.
Brown, Bernice O., High School, Jamestown, N. Y., 59 Falconer St.
Brown, Elizabeth V., Clifton Park Junior High School, Baltimore, Md., 2106 N. Charles St.
Brown, J. Franklin, Editor, The MacMillan Co., 60 Fifth Ave., New York City, 51 Ellanton Ave., New Rochelle, N. Y.
Brown, Marshall Stewart, Dean of Faculties, New York University, New York City, 19 Fairview St., Yonkers, N. Y.
Brown, Samuel H., Westtown School, Westtown, Pa.
Brown, Stella E., Maryland State Normal School, Towson, Md.
Bryan, Alfred C., High School of Commerce, New York City, 416 Clermont Ave., Brooklyn, N. Y.
Buchanan, Mary F., 439 Bellevue Ave., Trenton, N. J.
Buckle, Alice Isabelle, High School, Conshohocken, Pa., 134 E. Fourth Ave.
Buckley, Margaret H., 5925 Falls Road, Mt. Washington, Baltimore, Md.
Bucknam, Kate D., Eastern High School, Washington, D. C., 1207 Rhode Island Ave., N. W.
Buddy, Eileen, High School, St. Joseph, Mo., 424 S. Ninth St.
Bunnell, Theora J., McKinley Technical High School, Washington, D. C., Cathedral Mansions Center.
Burch, Henry Reed, West Philadelphia High School for Boys, 5208 Drexel Road.
Burlingame, Anne Elizabeth, Hunter College, New York City.
Butler, Arthur Pierce, Morristown School, Morristown, N. J.
Buzby, Ethel, William Penn High School, Philadelphia, Pa., 4839 Hazel Ave.
Bye, Edgar C., High School, Coatesville, Pa., 99 S. 11 Ave.
Byrom, Reba A., Philadelphia High School for Girls, Philadelphia, Pa., 501 Carpenter Lane, Germantown.
Cairnes, Laura J., Eastern High School, Baltimore, Md., 4008 Roland Ave.
Campbell, Elsie, Morristown High School, Morristown, N. J., 94 Western Ave.
Capen, Louise Irving, Barringer High School, Newark, N. J., 43 Park End Place, East Orange, N. J.
Carman, Harry J., Columbia University, New York City, 21 Claremont Ave.
Carpenter, Leonora E., Eastern High School, Baltimore, Md., 1317 Park Ave.
Carrigan, Kathryn E. C., High School, Atlantic City, N. J., 21 N. Sacramento Ave., Vintner, N. J.
Carter, Alfred, George School, Bucks Co., Pa.
Caspari, Alice C., Forest Park High School, Baltimore, Md., 2807 Mt. Holly St.
Castle, E. H., East Bridgewater, Mass.
Chandor, Valentine L., Principal Miss Chandor's School for Girls, 137 E. 62 St., New York City.
Cheesman, M. Edna, Kemble School, 116 Thomas St., Utica, N. Y.
Cheyney, Edward Potts, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa., 259 S. 44 St.

Clapp, Roger E. E., Temple University, Philadelphia, Pa., 110 St. Paul's Road, Ardmore, Pa.
Clark, Florence R., Evander Childs High School, New York City, Bronxville, N. Y.
Clark, Marion, McKinley Technical High School, Washington, D. C., 1657 Lamont St.
Clark, Marion G., Supervisor Elementary Education, 192 Claremont Ave., Montclair, N. J.
Clark, Mary Emily, George Biddle High School, Cecilton, Md.
Clauder, Anna Cornelia, William Penn High School for Girls, Philadelphia, Pa., 3334 N. 16 St.
Cleaver, C. G., Ginn and Company, New York City, 8426–110 St., Richmond Hill.
Cockram, Edith May, High School, Trenton, N. J., 36 Prospect St.
Coffin, Mrs. Elizabeth F., 140 N. 15 St., Philadelphia, Pa.
Conner, Frances S., Scranton High School, Scranton, Pa.
Cooley, Charlotte Cecil, 519 W. 121 St., New York City.
Cooper, Florence A., Shaw Junior High School, 54 and Warrington Ave., Philadelphia, Pa.
Corlies, F. A., Lawrenceville School, Lawrenceville, N. J.
Coughlin, Mildred M., Forest Park High School, Baltimore, Md., 3507 Newland St., Guildford.
Coulomb, Charles Augustin, District Superintendent of Schools, District No. 1, Philadelphia, Pa., 4249 Girard Ave.
Cunniffe, Katherine, Dean of Girls, Evander Childs High School, New York City, 2331 Grand Concourse.
Curtis, A. Gertrude, Walnut Hills High School, Cincinnati, Ohio, 2409 Ashland Ave.
Curtis, Florence A., 22 Sound View St., Port Chester, N. Y.
Custer, John S., Lawrenceville School, Lawrenceville, N. J.
Dales, Frances E., Passaic High School, Passaic, N. J.
Darby, Roi T., Eastern High School, Washington, D. C., 1911 Pennsylvania Ave., N. W.
Davis, Mabelle E., High School, Passaic, N. J., 5 Albion St.
Davis, Maude Helen, High School, East Orange, N. J., 68 Lenox Ave.
Dawson, Edgar, Hunter College, New York City.
Deane, Rev. Charles J., Fordham University, New York City.
Deck, Clara M., Girls High School, Reading, Pa., West Leesport, Pa.
Denison, Isabel Noyes, Normal School, Indiana, Pa., 126 Broad St., Graton, Conn.
Deshel, Morris Charles, DeWitt Clinton High School, New York City, 503 McLean Ave., Yonkers, N. Y.
Dewey, A. Gordon, 714 Hamilton Hall, Columbia University, New York City.
Dexter, Elizabeth A. (Mrs. R. C.), Skidmore College, Saratoga Springs, N. Y.
Dickinson, Florence, Bryant High School, New York City, 2454 Webb Ave.
Diehl, Mrs. Vivian B., 2737 Maryland Ave., Baltimore, Md.

Dilks, Clara Gilbert, High School for Girls, Philadelphia, Pa., 6126 Jefferson St., West Philadelphia, Pa.
Dival, Mrs. Herbert, Broad & Elm Aves., Morsemere, N. J.
Donovan, Lillian, 513 N. Carrollton Ave., Baltimore, Md.
Dougherty, Philip, Polytechnic Institute, Baltimore, Md., 3 Windsor Road, Sudbrook Park, Md.
Dowd, Mary A., Box 6 University Station, Syracuse, N. Y., 505 S. Crouse Ave.
Downey, Margaret E., 1575 Abbottston St., Baltimore, Md.
Dunbar, Jenny, Shaw Junior High School, 54 and Warrington Ave., Philadelphia, Pa.
Duggan, Stephen P., Director, Institute of International Education, 522 Fifth Ave., New York City, 430 W. 116 St.
Dunaway, Wayland F., Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pa., 702 W. College Ave.
Dunham, Orleyna V., 50 Pennington St., Oakland, Md.
Dynes, Sara A., Lock Box 681, Sun Prairie, Wis.
Eaby, Mary L., 127 E. Clay St., Lancaster, Pa.
Earle, Edward Mead, Barnard College, Columbia University, New York City, 21 Claremont Ave.
Eaton, Margaret Clarke, William Penn High School, Philadelphia, Pa., 1929 Mt. Vernon St.
Eaton, Roland Leonard, 404 S. Broad St., Philadelphia, Pa.
Ebaugh, Mary, Catonsville High School, Baltimore, Md., Reisterstown, Md.
Eddy, Ruth M., Frankford High School, Philadelphia, Pa.
Eddy, William W., Lafayette College, Easton, Pa., 321 Cattell St.
Eckford, Mary Wright, Maryland State Normal School, Towson, Md., care of Mrs. Herbert Smock, Aigburth Road.
Elsbree, Oliver W., The Peddie School, Highstown, N. J.
Ellery, Eloise, Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, N. Y.
Elliott, Charles H., Rutgers College & State University of New Jersey, New Brunswick, N. J., 330 Lincoln Ave.
Elliott, Rebecca Patton, William Penn High School, Philadelphia, Pa., 5031 Cedar Ave.
Elson, Henry W., Hunter College, New York City, 1314 Watchung Ave., Plainfield, N. J.
Ely, Elizabeth L., Principal, The Ely School for Girls, Greenwich, Conn., Ely Court, North St.
Evans, Austin P., Columbia University, New York City, Montrose, N. Y.
Evans, Jessie C., William Penn High School, Philadelphia, Pa.
Faber, Pamela Thomas (Mrs. E. S.), Miss Beard's School, Orange, N. J., 70 Second St., South Orange, N. J.
Fairchild, J. R., American Book Co., New York City.
Farnsworth, Mildred A., William H. Seward High School, New York City, 405 W. 118 St.

Farnsworth, Nellie May, William H. Seward High School, New York City, 405 W. 118 St.
Farrell, Letitia, Teachers College, New York City, 76 Shipwright St., Annapolis, Md.
Fay, Harrison G., 111 W. 74 St., New York City.
Featherston, Theresa A., 660 Westfield Ave., Elizabeth, N. J.
Ferry, Nellie P., West Philadelphia High School for Girls, Philadelphia, Pa., 4510 Chestnut St.
Finkel, Charles Norman, Newark Preparatory School, 431 S. 16 St., Newark, N. J.
Fisk, Daniel Moore, Columbia University, New York City, 116 St. and Broadway.
Fleming, Carrie O., Julia Richman High School, New York City, 450 E. 26 St., Brooklyn ,N. Y.
Flick, Alexander C., State Historian, University of the State of New York, Albany, N. Y., 127 S. Manning Blvd.
Fontaine, E. Clarke, State Department of Education, Lexington Bldg., Baltimore, Md., Sixth St., Pokomoke City, Md.
Foote, Anna Elizabeth, Jamaica Training School, Jamaica, L. I., N. Y., The Franklin.
Ford, Grace Pascal, 527 W. 121 St., New York City.
Fortenbaugh, Robert, Gettysburg College, Gettysburg, Pa., 235 W. Lincoln Ave.
Fox, Dixon Ryan, Columbia University, New York City, Hartsdale, N. Y.
Fox, Ida M., 2222 N. Calvert St., Baltimore, Md.
Freburger, Mary Louise, 539 N. Carrollton Ave., Baltimore, Md.
Freeman, Sara H., Englewood High School, Englewood, N. J., 28 Hillside Ave.
Frick, Mrs. W. H., St. Agatha School, 559 West End Ave., New York City.
Friedenthal, Mrs. Rose L., High School of Commerce, New York City, 107 W. 74 St.
Furlong, Philip J., Cathedral College, New York City.
Gambrill, J. Montgomery, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, 548 Riverside Drive.
Gardner, Elizabeth, Laurel High School, Laurel, Md., 316 Montgomery St.
Gardner, Gertrude R., Hempstead High School ,Hempstead, Long Island, N. Y.
Gaskill, Lois L.. Polytechnic Preparatory Country Day School, Brooklyn, N. Y., 1205 Ave. G.
Gathany, J. Madison, 15 Grant Ave., East Orange, N. J.
Geller, Mary M., Shaw Junior High School, 54 and Warrington Ave., Philadelphia, Pa.
Gemmill, Charlotte E., 310 Fayette St., Conshohocken, Pa.
Gerboth, H. B., Harcourt, Mace & Co., 383 Madison Ave., New York City.
Gibbons, Alice Newman, East High School, Rochester, N. Y., 1592 Highland Ave.
Gibson, Achsah Elizabeth, 3631 Elm Ave., Baltimore, Md.
Gilbert, Amy M., Elmira College, Elmira, N. Y., 298 N. Main St., Chambersburg, Pa.

Gilbert, Grace R., Nassau Ave., Huntington, N. Y.
Giltner, Emmett E., Training School for Teachers, New York City, 85 Grant St., Yonkers, N. Y.
Gipson, Lawrence H., Lehigh University, Bethlehem, Pa., 231 E. Market St.
Glass, Lillian S., Shaw Junior High School, 54 and Warrington Ave., Philadelphia, Pa.
Glass, Mary R., Shaw Junior High School, 54 and Warrington Ave., Philadelphia, Pa.
Glocker, Mrs. Lelia F., 2909 W. Presstman St., Baltimore, Md.
Goldbloom, Simon L., DeWitt Clinton High School, New York City.
Golder, A., City College, Baltimore, Md.
Goodman, Hannah, West-Philadelphia High School for Girls, Philadelphia, Pa., 1306 S. 53 St.
Goshaw, Mildred, Frankford High School, Philadelphia, Pa., 428 Conarroe St., Roxboro, Pa.
Gottschalk, Joseph M., Frankford High School, Philadelphia, Pa.
Grady, Mrs. Eleanor Hunsdon, Hunter College, New York City, 550 W. 140 St.
Green, Joseph C., Princeton University, Princeton, N. J., 176 Western Way.
Greenan, John T., East Orange High School, East Orange, N. J., 304 William St.
Greene, Evarts Bontell, Kent Hall, Columbia University, New York City.
Greene, Garton S., Germantown High School, Philadelphia, Pa.
Greer, Roxy R., Jamaica Training School, Jamaica, N. Y., 106 W. 13 St., New York City.
Haasz, George Neiler, South Philadelphia High School for Boys, Philadelphia, Pa., 1733 N. 25 St.
Hale, Harriet F., Julia Richman High School, New York City, 1141 Park Place, Brooklyn, N. Y.
Hamilton, A. Grace, South Philadelphia High School for Girls, Philadelphia, Pa., 18 Rigby Ave., Lansdowne, Pa.
Hamilton, Ruth Gertrude, Knox School, Cooperstown, N. Y., 201 Granville St., Newark, Ohio.
Hanaway, Roy Clark, Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pa.
Hanson, Daisy Evelyn, New York Training School for Teachers, New York City, 221 Egmont Ave., Mount Vernon, N. Y.
Harbold, Grace E., William Penn High School, Philadelphia, Pa.
Harden, Mary, Eastern Illinois State Teachers College, Charleston, Ill., 835 Seventh St.
Harney, Rev. Martin P., Boston College, Chestnut Hill, Mass.
Harrison, Mary Ella, Western High School, Baltimore, Md., 1617 Eutaw Place.
Harrison, Minnie B., South Philadelphia High School for Girls, Philadelphia, Pa., 6033 Pine St.
Haslup, Alice E., Langley Junior High School, Washington, D. C., 121 Thirteenth St., N. E.
Haseler, Ada H., William Penn High School, Philadelphia, Pa., 1920 Shunk St.

Hatch, Roy Winthrop, Teachers College, Columbia University and Horace Mann School, New York City, 323 Beechwood Place, Leonia, N. J.
Hayes, Carlton J. H., Columbia University, New York City, 35 Claremont Ave., New York City, (from June 1 to Oct. 1) Afton, N.Y.
Hazen, Charles Downer, Columbia University, New York City, 42 E. 75 St.
Heal, Frank Martine, 419 E. Tenth St., Wilmington, Del.
Heald, Mark Mortimer, Princeton University, Princeton, N. J.
Heckel, Albert Kerr, Dean of Men, University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo., 7 Glenwood Ave.
Hedden, Elma W., State Normal School, Newark, N. J., Mt. Pleasant Ave., West Orange, N. J.
Hedge, Louise June, 1453 Glenwood Road, Brooklyn, N. Y.
Hendley, Charles J., George Washington High School, New York City, W. 232 St. and Fairfield.
Herrera, Lillian May, 4014 Roland Ave., Baltimore, Md.
Herrick Cheesman Abiah, President, Girard College, Philadelphia, Pa.
Hester, (Mrs.) Laura P. 1301 Massachusetts Ave., N. W., Washington, D. C.
Hill, (Mrs.) Louise B., The Bennett School, Millbrook, N. Y.
Hilliard, Marion, William L. Dickinson High School, Jersey City, N. J.
Hoblitzell, M. Nettie, Federal Junior High School, Baltimore, Md., 1519 Park Ave.
Hock, Emma B., Moravian Seminary and College for Women, Bethlehem, Pa.
Hodgdon, Frederick Crosby, Ginn and Co., 70 Fifth Ave., New York City.
Hodgdon, Mrs. Frederick Crosby, 4 Gramercy Park, New York City.
Hoffert, Valeria E., Girls High School, Reading, Pa., R. D. No. 1, Sinking Springs, Pa.
Hollenbach, Charles R., Atlantic City High School, Atlantic City, N. J.
Holloway, Virginia, 310 Strathmore Ave., Baltimore, Md.
Holt, Lucius Hudson, Colonel U. S. Army, West Point, N. Y.
Hood, Raymond, Northeast High School, Philadelphia, Pa.
Howard, Elizabeth I., 71 Britton Ave., Elmhurst, N. Y.
Howe, Samuel B., South Side High School, Newark, N. J., 79 Halsey St.
Hughes, Roy O., Peabody High School, Pittsburg, Pa., 5517 Beverly Place.
Hull, Charles Henry, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y., 413 E. Buffalo St.
Hull, William Isaac, Swarthmore College, Swarthmore, Pa.
Huttman, Maude A., Barnard College, Columbia University, New York City, 308 W. 73 St.
Ingalls, Edith Eliza, The Ogontz School, Ogontz School P. O., Pa., 432 Macon St., Brooklyn, N. Y.
Isanogle, A. M., Western Maryland College, Westminster, Md.
Jacobs, Melvin C., New York University, New York City, Chester, N. Y.
Jameson, Samuel H., Lafayette College, Easton, Pa.
Jaquette, Mabel V., General Meade School, Newark, Del., 49 Prospect Ave.
Jarrold, Rachel M., State Normal School, Trenton, N. J.
Jenkins, Alice E., 1513 Lafayette St., Scranton, Pa.
Johnson, Henry, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

Johnson, Lloyd Wellington, Adelphi Academy, Brooklyn, N. Y., 75 Nassau Ave., Malverne, N. Y.

Jones, George J., Head Department of History, High Schools of Washington, Central High School, Washington, D. C., 3670 Park Place, N. W.

Jones, M. Elizabeth, Frankford High School, Philadelphia, Pa.

Josepha, Sister M., Principal Holy Trinity School, 3513 N. St., N. W., Washington, D. C.

Jurkat, Frank A., Cedarville College, Cedarville, Ohio.

Kahn, Fannie, Marlborough Apartments, Baltimore, Md.

Kauffman, Rose M., Kensington High School for Girls, Philadelphia, Pa., Gunter 4-B Forty-first St. and Baltimore Ave.

Kause, Selma, Langley Junior High School, Washington, D. C.

Kaye, P. Lewis, Baltimore City College, Baltimore, Md., Pinkney Road.

Kayser, Elmer Louis, George Washington University, Washington, D. C., 1812 K. St., N. W.

Keep, Austin Baxter, College of the City of New York, New York City, 433 W. 117 St.

Keffer, (Mrs.) Mary V., 520 Franklin St., Johnstown, Pa.

Kelley, Frank B., DeWitt Clinton High School, New York City, 455 Madison Ave., Elizabeth, N. J.

Kelsey, Rayner W., Haverford College, Haverford, Pa.

Kennedy, Edna R., Lincoln High School, Jersey City, N. J., 57 Gardner Ave.

King, (Mrs.) Florence B., William Penn High School, Philadelphia, Pa., 3622 Hamilton St.

Kinnear, Agnes I., Langley Junior High School, Washington, D. C.

Kirk, Byron, Port Jervis High School, Port Jervis, N. Y., 18 Catherine St.

Kirkman, Loulie Redus, Washington Irving High School, New York City, 257 W. 11 St.

Klinesmith, Bessie, Western High School, Baltimore, Md., Normandie Apts.

Knapp, Charles Merriam, Western Michigan State Normal School, Kalamazoo, Mich., 533 W. Vine St.

Knee, Pauline, Eastern High School, Washington, D. C., Clarendon, Va.

Knowlton, Daniel C., The Lincoln School of Teachers College, New York City, 97 N. Mountain Ave., Montclair, N. J.

Koch, Flora M., Lincoln High School, Jersey City, N. J., 309 W. 109 St., New York City.

Kollock, Margaret R., West Philadelphia High School for Girls, Philadelphia, Pa.

Kreutzenauer, Sarah, Yorkville Junior High School, New York City.

Krout, John A., Columbia University, New York City, 141 Nagle Ave.

Kull, Irving Stoddard, Rutgers College, New Brunswick, N. J., 203 Lincoln Ave.

Lamson, Elizabeth, Powell Junior High School, Washington, D. C.

Landsdowne, James D., 103 E. Essex Ave., Landsdowne, Pa.

Lane, (Mrs.) Ina L. C., Polytechnic Preparatory Country Day School, Brooklyn, N. Y., 896 Sterling Place.

Langford, A.M., Highstown, N. J.

Latané, Edith, Mary Baldwin Seminary, Staunton, Va.
Latané, John H., Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.
Lavers, Lida A, Central High School, Newark, N. J., 42 Kearny St.
Lawrence, Antoinette, Jamaica High School, Jamaica, L. I., 28 McDonogh St., Brooklyn, N. Y.
Lawson, Leonard A., Hobart College, Geneva, N. Y., 344 Pulteney St.
Leary, Marion B., 19 Water St., Oakland, Md.
Leavitt, Frank M., Associate Superintendent of Schools, 714 Fulton Bldg., Pittsburg, Pa.
Lee, Frederick E., University of Maryland, College Park, Md.
Lee, Mary Webb, 2708 Guildford Ave., Baltimore, Md.
Leete, Gertrude, Richmond Hill High School, New York City.
Lentz, E. Marie, Altoona High School, Altoona, Pa., 422 Willow Ave.
Levy, Clara, State Normal School, Newark, N. J., 230 N. Sixth St.
Lewis, Ernest D., Evander Childs High School, New York City, 120 E. 184 St.
Lewis, William Dodge, The John C. Winston Co., Philadelphia, Pa.
Lincoln, Anna T., Willard Hall School, Wilmington, Del., 721 Adams St.
Lingelbach, William E., University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.
Logan, J. H., Commissioner of Education of New Jersey, Trenton, N. J.
Lokke, C. L., Furnald Hall, Columbia University, New York City.
Lord, Eleanor L., Smith College, Northampton, Mass.
Lunt, W. E., Haverford College, Haverford, Pa.
Lutz, E. Russell, Central High School, Washington, D. C., 1808 Ontario Place.
Mace, William Harrison, Syracuse, N. Y., 1205 Harrison St.
MacLear, Anne Bush, Hunter College, New York City, 118 Cottage Ave., Mount Vernon, N. Y.
MacNeal, Ruth L., White Plains High School, White Plains, N. Y., 53 Mamaroneck Ave.
Magoffin, Ralph V. D., New York University, New York City.
Mallett, Metta F., 355 Hamilton Ave., Trenton, N. J.
Manning, Frederick J., Swarthmore College, Swarthmore, Pa.
Mansion, Frances A., 121 Twenty-fifth St., Jackson Heights, N. Y.
Marcus, Evelyn, Washington Irving High School, New York City, 531 W. 124 St.
Marsh, Genevieve, McKinley Technical High School, Washington, D. C., The Ontario, 215.
Martin, Anna K., The Halstead School, Yonkers, N. Y., 650 W. 170 St., New York City.
Marty, Sara M., 16 Edgewood Road, Larchmont, N. Y.
Masland, Marion W., High School for Girls, Philadelphia, Pa., 1520 N. 15 St.
Masterson, Rev. Peter V., Georgetown University, Washington, D. C.
McCamant, Catherine, Pottsville High School, Pottsville, Pa., 67 W. Market St., Bethlehem, Pa.
McClain, Miriam, West Philadelphia High School, Philadelphia, Pa.
McClellan, Effie G., 212 Pittston Ave, Scranton, Pa.
McClintock, Anna S., 229 N. Lenwood Ave., Baltimore, Md.

McClosky, Mary L., Long Branch High School, Long Branch, N. J., 123 Third Ave.
McCreary, Gertrude R., Liberty High School, Bethlehem, Pa., 728 N. High St.
McCullock, Margaret C., Miss Beard's School, 112 Berkeley Ave., Orange, N. J., 446 S. Centre St.
McDonald, Emma, Brearley School, 60 East 61 St., New York City, 73 Pierrepont St., Brooklyn, N. Y.
McGee, John E., Hamilton Hall, Columbia College, Columbia University, New York City.
McGoldrick, Joseph D., Columbia University, New York City, 596 Madison St., Brooklyn, N. Y.
McGraw, E. Leona, Morris High School, New York City.
McGroarity, Mary Evangeline, Jefferson Junior High School, Washington, D. C., Falls Church, Va.
McKinley, Albert Edward, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa., 6901 Germantown Ave.
McMaster, Virginia, Passaic High School, Passaic, N. J.
McMaster, William E., Passaic High School, Passaic, N. J.
McQueen, Alice Edgerton, Philadelphia High School for Girls, Philadelphia, Pa., 6316 Sherman St., Germantown, Pa.
McQuilland, George T., Morris High Schoool, New York City, 8501–94 St., Woodhaven, N. Y.
McTadden, Katherine, 137 S. Pine St., Hazelton, Pa.
Mead, Nelson P., College of the City of New York, New York City, 35 Claremont Ave.
Melchoir, D. Montfort, Supervisor of High School Instruction, Girard College, Philadelphia, Pa.
Merrill, George Abbot, Hackensack High School, Hackensack, N. J., 73 Johnson Ave.
Michener, A. Oswald, Northeast High School, Philadelphia, Pa.
Miller, Helen, Eastern High School, Baltimore, Md.
Miller, Margaret I., State Normal School, Trenton, N. J.
Miner, Clarence W., Wadleigh High School, New York City, 921 St. Nicholas Ave.
Mitchell, Pearl Boring, West Philadelphia High School for Girls, Philadelphia, Pa., 5016 Locust St.
Mohair, Anna B., Central High School, Newark, N. J., 385 S. Belmont Ave.
Mohr, Walter Harrison, George School, Bucks County, Pa.
Moon, Parker T., Columbia University, New York City.
Moore, Emily E., North East, Md.
Morehouse, Frances ,Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, 509 W. 121 St.
Morley, (Mrs.) Caroline C., Shaw Junior High School, 54 and Warrington Ave., Philadelphia, Pa.
Morrissy, Elizabeth, Notre Dame College, Baltimore, Md., 228 N. Taylor Ave., St. Louis, Mo.

Morse, Livingston Burrill, College of the City of New York, New York City, 400 W. 160 St.
Mosher, Jr., O. W., University of Delaware, Newark, Del.
Moyer, Fayette E., DeWitt Clinton High School, New York City, 87 Grove St., Montclair, N. J.
Mueller, Henry R., Muhlenberg College, Allentown, Pa., 1212 Chew St.
Munn, Alice, Maryland State Normal School, Towson, Md.
Munro, Dana Carleton, Princeton University, Princeton, N. J.
Munson, Raymond Burton, 170 Joralemon St., Brooklyn, N. Y.
Murphy, Joseph M., Hunter College, New York City, 2940 Broadway.
Murray, Effingham C., Adelphi Academy, Brooklyn, N. Y., 1710 Caton Ave.
Murray, Lucy E., Western High School, Baltimore, Md., 1930 Mt. Royal Terrace.
Murray, Mary F., Eastern High School, Washington, D.C., 1317 Farragut St., N. W.
Murray, Robert Cornelius, Riverdale Country School, New York City, 2623 Sedgwick, Ave., Kings Bridge.
Musser, John, New York University, New York City.
Muzzey, David S., Columbia University, New York City, 2287 Loring Place.
Myers Florence, 220 Wadsworth Ave., New York City.
Nelson, Mabel F., 70 Morningside Drive Apts., New York City.
Nettleton, Harriet A., Madison School, Newark, N. J., 66 Leslie St.
Newcomb, Mary A., 144 Twelfth St., N. E., Washington, D. C.
Nichols, Roy F., Columbia University, New York City, 403 W. 115 St.
Nock, Anna W., 821 N. 24 St., Philadelphia, Pa.
North, Lila V., Montclair High School, Montclair, N. J., 178 Summit Ave., Upper Montclair, N. J.
North, Mary, Montclair High School, Montclair, N. J., 24 Norman Road, Upper Montclair, N. J.
North, Samuel M., State Department of Education, 2014 Lexington Bldg., Baltimore, Md.
Northrop, Amanda Carolyn, Hunter College, New York City, 15 E. 28 St.
Norwood, J. Nelson, Alfred University, Alfred, N. Y.
O'Brien, Mayme, Junior High School, Franklin, Pa., 412 Tenth St.
Oliver, John W., University of Pittsburg, Pittsburg, Pa., University Club.
Olson, Jennie, Haverstraw High School, Haverstraw, N. Y., 22 South St.
Osgood, Ellen Louise, Julia Richman High School, New York City, 106 E. 52 St.
Ott, Mary Castle, Hood College, Frederick, Md.
Packard, Frederick L., Montclair High School, Montclair, N. J., 34 Oakwood Ave., Upper Montclair, N. J.
Paine, Frederick Holmes, Eastern District High School, Brooklyn, N. Y., 185 Gates Ave.
Palmer, E. S., Montclair High School, Montclair, N. J., 127 N. Mountain St.
Palmer, Rilla Wood, East Side High School, Newark, N. J., 1042 S. Broad St.
Park, Joseph H., New York University, University Heights, New York City.
Park, Julian, University of Buffalo, Buffalo, N. Y.
Patton, Mary P., 1439 University Ave., New York City.

Peardon, T. P., Barnard College, Columbia University, New York City.
Peck, Beatrice, West Philadelphia High School for Girls, Philadelphia, Pa., 4922 Chancellor St.
Phillips, Gladys E., Hampstead High School, Hampstead, Md. 417 Maryland Ave., Cambridge, Md.
Phillips, Jesse C., West Philadelphia High School for Boys, Philadelphia, Pa., 718 S. 55 St.
Phinney, (Mrs.) Mary L. Bancroft, The Knox School, Cooperstown, N. Y.
Pickett, Isabelle, Western High School, Washington, D. C., 2823-38 St., N. W.
Pielert, (Mrs.) Mabel A., Middle River, Baltimore County, Md.
Pippin, (Mrs.) Elizabeth E., Caroline High School, Denton, Md.
Pitt, (Miss) H. Francis, Ripley, N. Y.
Plate, Emma, Bayonne High School, Bayonne, N. J., 91 Van Reypen St., Jersey City, N. J.
Preston, Helen G., Newtown High School, Elmhurst, N. Y., 20 Ketchem Place.
Priest, W. Edwin, Western High School, Washington, D. C.
Price, Blanche D., Germantown High School, Philadelphia, Pa., 404 W. School Lane.
Price, Joseph, Haines, Germantown Friends School, Germantown, Philadelphia, Pa., 7435 Sprague St., Philadelphia, Pa.
Puig, Louise M., 1270 Carroll St., Brooklyn, N. Y.
Quinlan, Grace M., Maxwell Training School for Teachers, Park Place, Brooklyn, N. Y.
Race, Marian N., Passaic High School, Passaic, N. J.
Ranck, James B., Western Maryland College, Westminster, Md.
Raubenheimer, Otto, 1341 Fulton St., Brooklyn, N. Y.
Raymond, Irving W., Columbia College, Columbia University, New York City, 404 W. 115 St.
Ray, Russell L., 105 W. 40 St., New York City.
Read, Richard P., James Monroe High School, New York City, 1045 Union Ave.
Redmond, M. Lucy, 20 Madison St., Annapolis, Md.
Reese, Lillian Berry, 4103 Roland Ave., Baltimore, Md.
Renninger, George H., Haverford College, Haverford, Pa.
Renninger, Warren, Central High School, Philadelphia, Pa.
Rex, Percival, Friends Central School, Philadelphia, Pa.
Rexford, Frank A., Department of Education, 500 Park Ave., New York City.
Rice, Roland, Pizarro, Va.
Rice, Winfield L., Boys High School, Brooklyn, N. Y., 82 Pierrepont St.
Richardson, Mary W., South Side High School, Memphis, Tenn., 1020 Raynor St.
Robb, J. Irvin, Northeast High School, Philadelphia, Pa.
Roberts, William Ely, West Philadelphia High School for Boys, Philadelphia, Pa., 207 McKinley Ave., Lansdowne, Pa.
Robinette, Rosalie, Central High School, Washington, D. C., Primrose St., No. 111, Chevy Chase.
Robinson, James Harvey, 924 West End Ave., New York City.
Robinson, Mary L., Willard Hall School, Wilmington, Del., 39 and Market Sts.

Rogers, Elizabeth F., Wilson College, Chambersburg, Pa.
Rogers, Emily M., Hillside Junior High School, Monclair, N. J., 38 Church St.
Roys, Marion I., East Side High School, Newark, N. J.
Rugg, Harold, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, 59 Edgecliff Terrace, Yonkers, N. Y.
Rutherford, Emma, 89 Alexander Ave., White Plains, N. Y.
Ryan, Sara T., Principal Carteret High School, Carteret, N. J.
Ryan, (Rev.) Thomas F., St. John's College, Brooklyn, N. Y.
Ryden, George Herbert, University of Delaware, Newark, Del., Box 334
Sachs, Julius, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, 225 W. 86 St.
Salmon, Lucy Maynard, Poughkeepsie, N. Y.
Sanders, William Burton, Western Maryland College, Westminster, Md., College Ave.
Saurwalt, Alma Virginia, High School for Girls, Philadelphia, Pa., 5415 N. 11 St.
Scarborough, Nellie, 2101 N. Charles St., Baltimore, Md.
Schapiro, J. Salwyn, College of the City of New York, New York City, 12 W. 92 St.
Schmidt, Martha V., High School for Girls, Reading, Pa., 914 Rose St.
Schuyler, Livingston R., College of the City of New York, New York City.
Schuyler, Mary Eloise, West Philadelphia High School for Girls, Philadelphia, Pa., 4922 Chancellor St.
Schweppe, Emma, The Lincoln School of Teachers College, New York City, 533 W. 124 St.
Scott, Flora L., Audubon Junior High School, Cleveland, Ohio, E. 194 St. Collinwood Station.
Scott, S. Spencer, Head of Educational Department of Harcourt, Bruce & Company, 383 Madison Ave., New York City.
Sebring, Emma G., Principal St. Agatha School, 553 West End Ave., New York City, 165 W. 82 St.
Selecter, Rachel, Kensington High School, Philadelphia, Pa.
Selmser, Gail H., William Penn High School, Philadelphia, Pa.
Semmes, Raphael, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md., 222 W. Lanvale St.
Shafer, Mary C., East Stroudsburg State Normal School, East Stroudsburg, Pa., 111 North Seventh St., Stroudsburg, Pa.
Shattuck, Blanche E., Ogontz School, Ogontz School P. O., Pa.
Shaughnessy, Margaret, 1433 Bolton St., Baltimore, Md.
Shaver, Preston H., Upperco, Md.
Shefloe, Joseph S., The Macmillan Company, New York City, 2314 N. Calvert St., Baltimore, Md.
Sheldon, Laura C., The Ely School, Ely Court, Greenwich, Conn.
Shepherd, William R., Kent Hall, Columbia University, New York City.
Shiels, Albert, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.
Shipley, Margaret Lucinda, Frederick High School, 107 W. Fourth St. Frederick, Md.

Shipman, Henry Robinson, Princeton University, Princeton, N. J., 27 Mercer St.
Showers, Ralph W., West Philadelphia High School for Boys, Philadelphia, Pa., 6045 Regent St.
Shryoch, Richard H., University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.
Shumaker, Joseph McD., Cedar Crest College, Allentown, Pa., 1402 Chew St.
Shumway, A. Katherine, Park School, Snyder, N. Y.
Sigman, James G., Frankford High School, Philadelphia, Pa., 3300 N. Bouvier St.
Silver, Benjamin, Evander Childs High School, Bronx, New York City, 2110 Vyse Ave.
Simpson, Jewell I., Department of Education, Lexington Bldg., Baltimore, Md., Preston Apartments.
Simpson, Sarah A., 435 W. 123 St., New York City.
Sioussat, St. George Leakin, Univerity of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.
Skinner, Avery Warner, Director of Examinations and Inspections Division, New York State Department of Education, Albany, N. Y., 180 Washington Ave.
Skinner, Mabel, Washington Irving High School, New York City, 104 W. 70 St.
Smith, Donald E., George Washington High School, New York City, 1974 University Ave., Bronx.
Smith, Edward Payson, Supervisor of Social Studies, State Education Department, Albany, N. Y.
Smith, Jennie R., Elmira Heights, N. Y.
Smith, Sherman N., Colgate University, Hamilton, N. Y.
Smith, William Roy, Bryn Mawr College, Bryn Mawr, Pa.
Snowden, Sarah W., Newburg High School, Newburg, N. Y., 238 Montgomery St.
Spaulding, Myrtle, Seward Park Junior High School, New York City.
Spence, Lydia E., Eastern High School, Baltimore, Md., 626 S. Paca St.
Spencer, Abraham Lincoln, Central High School, Philadelphia, Pa., Aldine Hall.
Stauffer, Robert G., Leesport High School, Leesport, Pa., 139 Main St., Emaus, Pa.
Steele, Esther C. M., The Baldwin School, Bryn Mawr, Pa.
Stellwagon, George Heist, South Philadelphia High School for Boys, Philadelphia, Pa., 656 N. 33 St
Stern, Bessie, State Department of Education, Lexington Bldg., Baltimore, Md., 3702 Forest Park Ave.
Stevenson, Helen G., South Side High School, Newark, N. J., 279 Mt. Prospect Ave.
Stewart, J. L., Lehigh University, Bethlehem, Pa.
Stewart, Mary, Jefferson Junior High School, Washington, D. C., 624 Maryland Ave., N. E.
Stewart, Mary Weldon, William Penn High School, Philadelphia, Pa. 1218 S. Broad St.
Stewart, Sadie B., Eastern High School, Baltimore, Md.
Stone, Virginia E., Scarborough School, Scarborough-on-Hudson, N. Y.

Stoops, Blanche M., High Schoool, Ardmore, Pa., Lancaster Ave.
Stough, Mulford, Dickinson College, Carlisle, Pa.
Strayer, Minnie H., 400 N. Carey St., Baltimore, Md.
Streeper, Amanda, 2101 S. Broad St., Philadelphia, Pa., 43 Jacoby St.
Stryker, C. W., St. John's College, Annapolis, Md.
Stryker, Florence E., State Normal School, Montclair, N. J., 45 N. Fullerton Ave.
Stutz, Rose C., Western High School, Washington, D. C., 1628 Swann St., N. W.
Sullivan, James, Assistant Commissioner for Secondary Education, State Education Bldg., Albany, N. Y.
Sutch, Cleora, Scarsdale High School, Scarsdale, N. Y.
Sweet, Alfred H., Washington and Jefferson College, Washington, Pa.
Swetland, Roger Williams, Headmaster of the Peddie School, Hightstown, N. J.
Swift, Annie Dean, Girard College, Philadelp hia, Pa., 36 W. Graver's Lane, Chestnut Hill.
Swift, Mary Spedding, Germantown-Harmer School, Philadelphia, Pa., 36 W. Graver's Lane, Chestnut Hill.
Swinghammer, Antoinette C., Jefferson Junior High School, Washington, D. C., 1860 Columbia Road, N. W.
Talcott, Mabel Hall, High School, S. Manchester, Conn., 454 Washington St., Hartford, Conn.
Tall, Lida Lee, Principal of Maryland State Normal School, Towson, Md.
Tanner, Edwin P., Syracuse University, Syracuse, N. Y., 210 Walnut Place.
Taylor, Jane I., Wadleigh High School, New York City, 215 W. 114 St.
Thompson, Eleanor W., Philadelphia High School for Girls, Philadelphia, Pa. 2020 N. 21 St.
Thompson, James A., Durham School, Philadelphia, Pa., 669 Brooklyn St.
Thompson, Josephine, 96 Sterling Place, Brooklyn, N. Y.
Thompson, (Mrs.) M. Berna, William L. Dickinson High School, Jersey City N. J., 445 Bergen Ave.
Tibbetts, C. H., 7 Grubb St., Poughkeepsie, N. Y.
Tieman, Elsie C., 128 W. Eleven St., New York City.
Toner, Caroline E., Macfarland Junior High School, Washington, D. C., 1814 Ingleside Terrace, N. W.
Townsend, Caroline May, Towson High School, Towson, Md., 3312 Westerwald Ave., Baltimore, Md.
Townsend, Mary Evelyn, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, 645 West End Ave.
Trimble, Helen Bell, State Normal School, East Stroudsburg, Pa.
Tussey, Moore C., 19 W. 44 St., New York City.
Valentine, Katherine T., 1120 N. Calvert St., Baltimore, Md.
Van Bibber, Lena C., Maryland State Normal School, Towson, Md., 129 E. North Ave., Baltimore, Md.
Van Dyke, Paul, Princeton University, Princeton, N. J.
Van Sant, Sarah, 1516 Harlem Ave., Baltimore, Md.
Van Vleck, George W., Polytechnic Preparatory Country Day School, Brooklyn, N. Y., 92 St. and 7 Ave.
Vincent, John Martin, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.

Vliet, Andrew M., McKinley Technical High School, Washington, D. C.
Waidlick, Luther ,Northeast High School, Philadelphia, Pa.
Waldo, Virginia, Kent Place School, Summit, N. J., 6 Norwood Ave.
Walker, Margaret M., Germantown High School, Philadelphia, Pa.
4750 Penn St.
Walter, Ella Catherine, Johnstown High School, Johnstown, Pa.,
520 Franklin St.
Walther, E. Curt, Maryland State Normal School, Towson, Md.,
715 Evesham Ave.
Wanger, Ruth, South Philadelphia High School for Girls, Philadelphia, Pa.,
833 W. Marshall St., Norristown, Pa.
Waters, Suzanne B., Macfarland Junior High School, Washington, D. C.,
3009-11 St., N. W.
Weedon, L. Ava., 1306 W. Lexington St., Baltimore, Md.
Weglein, David E., Superintendent of Schools, 2400 Linden Ave.,
Baltimore, Md.
Weidenhammer, M. Antoinette, 213 S. Calhoun St., Baltimore, Md.
Welch, Fannie Florence, Passaic High School, Passaic, N. J., 47 High St.
Wells, Laura M., 4707 Edmondson Ave., Baltimore, Md.
Wells, Mary B., Hartridge School, Plainfield, N. J.
Wendel, Hugo C. M., New York University, New York City.
Westermann, W. L., Columbia University, New York City, 400 W. 118 St.
Westfall, Ralph R., Polytechnic Preparatory Country Day School,
Brooklyn, N. Y.
White, Elizabeth B., Ursinus College, Collegeville, Pa.
White, Fred C., Morris High School, New York City, 470 E. 161 St.
White, Helen D., Germantown Friends School, Germantown, Philadelphia, Pa.
Whitelaw, W. M., Columbia University, N. Y. C., 500 Riverside Drive.
Whitney, Janet Payne, (Mrs. G. G.) Westtown School, Westtown, Pa.
Wiener, Katherine M., Frederick High School, Frederick, Md.,
109 E. Patrick St.
Wilcox, Horace N., 48 Pierrepont St., Brooklyn, N. Y.
Wilder, Charles Wesley, Headmaster of Arnold School, Pittsburgh, Pa.
564 East End. Ave.
Wildes, Harry E., Northeast High School, Philadelphia, Pa.
Wildes (Mrs.) Helen J., William Penn High School, Philadelphia, Pa.
Wildman, Catherine, Box 42, Langhorne, Pa.
Wildman, Esther Theresa, Wm. Penn High School for Girls, Philadelphia, Pa.
140 N. 15 St.
Wilkinson, Katharine, M., Miss Chapin's School, 32 E. 57 St., New York City,
41 Central Park, West
William, L. Louise, High School, White Plains, N. Y., 41 Church St.
Williamson, Louise S., 17 E. Park St., Newark, N. J.
Willis, Margaret, Maryland State Normal School, Towson, Md.
Wilson, Ida Belle, Maryland State Normal School, Salisbury, Md.

Wing, Lucy Madeira, (Mrs. David L.), Head Mistress, Miss Madeira's School, 1330 Nineteenth St., N.W. Washington, D. C.
Winston, Adele W., Morris High School, New York City, 569 W. 150 St.
Winter, Mary Arline, Reading High School, Reading, Pa., 562 Main St., Royersford, Pa.
Winters, Herbert Daniel, Keuka College, Keuka Park, N. Y.
Wlodeck, Alwina H., 953 Anderson Ave., New York City.
Wolf, Morris, Girard College, Philadelphia, Pa., 47 Sunshine Road, Upper Darby, Pa.
Wombaugh, Jennie R., Olean High School, Olean, N. Y., 215 N. First St.
Wood, Jr., C. Tyler, Scarborough High School, Scarborough, N. Y., Box 38.
Wood, Elizabeth C., Wadleigh High School, New York City, 100 Morningside Drive.
Woodward, Esther R., 125 New York Ave., N. W., Washington, D. C.
Wyckoff, Harriet Elvira, High School of Commerce, New York City, 512 W. 123 St.
Wyckoff, V. J., St. John's College, Annapolis, Md.
Wyman, Alice, Sparks High School, Sparks, Md., Ruxton, Md.
Xavier, Sister M., Mt. St. Agnes College, Mt. Washington, Md.
Young, Helen Louise, Hunter College, New York City, 106 E. Fifty-second St.
Young, (Mrs.) Julia A., Lucretia Mott School, Washington, D. C., 1911 Third St., N. W.
Zachry, Caroline B., The Lincoln School of Teachers College, New York City.

Note to Members

Effort has been made to obtain accurate and full information as to addresses and official positions of members. Cooperation in this matter is asked by the secretary, who will be glad to have her attention called to any omissions or inaccuracies which may occur in the preceding list.

SUBSCRIBING LIBRARIES

Alfred University Library, Alfred, New York.
Amherst College, Converse Memorial Library, Amherst, Massachusetts.
Brooklyn Public Library, Brooklyn, New York.
Bryson Library, Teachers College, New York City.
Buffalo Public Library, Buffalo, New York.
University of California Library, Berkeley, California.
Chicago Public Library, Chicago, Illinois.
University of Chicago, General Library, Chicago, Illinois.
Colgate University Library, Hamilton, New York.
Colorado State Teachers College, The College Library, Greeley, Colorado.
Cornell College Library, Mount Vernon, Iowa.
Denver Public Library, Denver Colorado.
Detroit Public Library, Detroit, Michigan.
Iowa State College Library, Ames, Iowa.
State University of Iowa Library, Iowa City, Iowa.
University of Georgia, General Library, Athens, Georgia.
Harvard College Library, Cambridge, Massachusetts.
Hobart College Library, Geneva, New York.
University of Illinois Library, Urbana, Illinois.
Johns Hopkins University Library, Baltimore, Maryland.
Library of State Agricultural College, Manhattan, Kansas.
John Crerar Library, Chicago, Illinois.
Kansas State Teachers College, Kellogg Library, Emporia, Kansas.
Lawrence College Library, Appleton, Wisconsin.
Los Angeles Public Library, Los Angeles, California.
University of Michigan, General Library, Ann Arbor, Michigan.
University of Missouri Library, Columbia, Missouri.
State University Library, Missoula, Montana.
University of Nebraska Library, Lincoln, Nebraska.
New York Public Library, New York City.
New York University, New York State Library, Albany, New York.
North Carolina College for Women Library, Greensboro, North Carolina.
Oregon State Library, Salem, Oregon.
University of Oregon Library, Eugene, Oregon.
University of Pennsylvania Library, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
Pomona College Library, Claremont, California.
Rutgers College Library, New Brunswick, New Jersey.
Smith College Library, Northampton, Massachusetts.
University of Southern California Library, Los Angeles, California.

St. Louis Public Library, St. Louis, Missouri.
University of Texas Library, Austin, Texas.
Wellesley College Library, Wellesley 81, Massachusetts.
Wells College Library, Aurora, New York.
Library of the University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin.
Yale University Library, New Haven, Connecticut.
Vassar College Library, Poughkeepsie, New York.

Bishop, Willard, and Robinson

PRACTICAL MAP EXERCISES AND SYLLABI IN HISTORY

Adopted by the College Entrance Board in 1924 and now used in all college-entrance history examinations.

Absolutely distinctive in format. Tracing sheets bound in at the back fold over the maps. The syllabi occupy facing pages. This effective device has been specially patented for this series.

Seven separate books. Covering American History; Ancient History; Medieval and Modern European History; European History to 1714; European History since 1714; General History; English History.

Catalog price, subject to usual discount, each $0.56. Order from

GINN AND COMPANY

70 Fifth Avenue, New York

OF UNUSUAL MERIT

FISH'S HISTORY OF AMERICA

By Carl Russell Fish, Ph. D., Professor of History, University of Wisconsin, Colored Maps and Illustrations. 629 pages. $1.92.

A DISTINCTIVE and impressive history of the growth of the American nation, especially suitable for high schools. It describes graphically the most important episodes in our history, makes clear the chief forces that have brought about the development of the nation, and traces the causes and effects of various conditions on our national life. In addition, it gives a comprehensive account of certain subjects, such as the changes in home life, which have not hitherto been included in a book of his kind.

ELSON'S MODERN TIMES AND THE LIVING PAST

By Henry W. Elson, A. M., Litt. D., formerly President of Thiel College, Greenville, Pa. 767 Pages. Illustrations, Price, $2.40.
Part One. From the Earliest Times to the Reformation. $1.32.
Part Two. From the Reformation to the Present Time. $1.48.

DISTINGUISHED by masterly characterizations and illuminating philosophy from which the pupil can learn much more than would be possible from the ordinary dry recital of events. The chief emphasis is laid upon the social and industrial life of the people, their achievements and their progress. From the first to the last page the reader is carried along by the rare charm of the narrative and by the anecdotes and side lights which are full of human interest.

HALLECK'S HISTORY OF OUR COUNTRY FOR HIGHER GRADES

By Reuben Post Halleck, M. A., LL. D. 596 Pages. Richly illustrated. $1.60.

THIS account is so vivid and stimulating that the history of our country actually lives again in the mind of the pupil. It emphasizes especially the life, progress, and activities of the people and gives those facts which are necessary for our boys and girls to know in order to become good citizens. Throughout, there runs a thread of high and distinctly American idealism and patriotism.

FAIRCHILD'S ESSENTIALS OF ECONOMICS

By Fred Rogers Fairchild, Ph. D., Professor of Political Economy, Yale University. Cloth, 12 mo., 544 pages, illustrated. $1.60.

THIS BOOK is designed to give high school students a clear and dependable knowledge of the essential facts and principles of the science in order that they may become more intelligent citizens. The study is confined to fundamentals and avoids questions upon which there is difference of opinion. Constant reference is made to the practical facts of the student's everyday life and to the simpler problems of business. The book is written in an easy, simple, straightforward style.

AMERICAN BOOK COMPANY

NEW YORK, CINCINNATI, CHICAGO, BOSTON, ATLANTA

Humanistic Histories

THE WEBSTER HISTORIES

A Webster Book for Every Course

EARLY EUROPEAN HISTORY
MODERN EUROPEAN HISTORY
WORLD HISTORY
HISTORY OF THE MODERN WORLD
ANCIENT HISTORY
MEDIEVAL AND MODERN HISTORY
HISTORY OF LATIN AMERICA
HISTORY OF THE FAR EAST

Valuable New Auxiliaries

WEBSTER AND WEBB HISTORICAL OUTLINE MAPS AND EXERCISES

Book I —For Webster's Early European History
Book II—For Webster's Modern European History

BOURNE AND BENTON AMERICAN HISTORY

FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Emphasizes the connection between current social and political problems and the past experience of the American people.

D. C. HEATH AND COMPANY
239 West 39th Street New York City

The Story *of* Human Progress

An Introduction to Social Studies

By LEON C. MARSHALL
University of Chicago

SERVES as a preview of social studies for the junior high school or corresponding grades. Its purpose, simple and at the same time ambitious, is to give to the pupil a coherent view of the main forces involved in living together in society and a suitable background of social intelligence for his later thinking and experience. It explains the state of present social organization by tracing the slow, steady ascent of man, describing life at various stages of the development. It shows man's gradual supremacy over nature through three stages—appropriative, adaptive, and finally creative, or the stage when the elements are completely harnessed. Throughout, the discussion aims to tell how people can best live together in social groups and what are the essential conditions for this end.

Price $1.48 ***Illustrated*** ***548 Pages***

THE MACMILLAN COMPANY

New York Boston Chicago
Atlanta Dallas San Francisco

SCRIBNER

MODERN EUROPE AND ITS BEGINNINGS

By Edgar Holmes McNeal, Professor of European History, Ohio State University. $2.00.

A one-year text for the high-school course in European or general history. The continuity of history is stressed in this text to make history significant in the present—in the present of national and world affairs and in the present of the pupil's interest and attention. Maps and illustrations are effectively used to provide a colorful and vivid historical background.

MAKING HISTORY GRAPHIC

By Daniel C. Knowlton, History and Civics, Lincoln School, Teachers College, Columbia University. $1.60.

MAKING HISTORY GRAPHIC reproduces with explanatory notes and comment actual examples of the work of students in the history courses given at the Lincoln School. There are sixty-seven of these facsimiles presented in full-page illustrations, mostly in color, all drawn by these pupils in grades corresponding to those of the upper grammar, junior and senior high schools.

AMERICAN BEGINNINGS IN EUROPE

By Wilbur Fisk Gordy. $1.12.

For sixth grade classes, a delightful and readable account of the events which make up the European background of American history. Mr. Gordy has revised his widely used text to meet the new aims and objectives in education. Through pictures, descriptions, and illustrative incidents, he tells the fascinating story of human progress in such a way as to show how many of our ideas, arts, discoveries, and inventions had their origin.

CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS

Educational Department

New York Chicago Boston Atlanta San Francisco

Guitteau's Our United States

A HISTORY FOR SEVENTH AND EIGHTH GRADES

Prepares the citizens of tomorrow for a better understanding of the past and a larger, clearer vision of the future. It connects the story of our national life with the rest of the world, gives much attention to social and economic history, and places due emphasis on history since 1865.

Our Ancestors in Europe

Presents with rare literary and dramatic skill the story of America's heritage from the Old World. It is exceptional among children's books in that it was written very largely from contemporary narratives and contains many picturesque and striking quotations from them.

SILVER, BURDETT & COMPANY

New York Newark Boston Chicago San Francisco

A BOOK I INTEND TO USE DAILY

What praise could be more significant? This was a teacher's comment after making a critical study of

THE NATION'S HISTORY

By LEONARD AND JACOBS

HER REASONS

(1) The authors are practical teachers.
(2) Meets requirements of educational objectives: citizenship and character.
(3) Clear presentation of organization, development, and operation of human institutions.
(4) Excellent grading.
(5) Attractively worded outlines followed by thought-provoking problems and exercises.
(6) Durable binding, clear, readable print, instructive pictures and maps.

HENRY HOLT AND COMPANY

1 Park Avenue, New York **2451 Prairie Ave., Chicago**
6 Park St., Boston **149 New Montgomery St., San Francisco**

HAVE YOU seen our new booklet, "Teaching American History Successfully in Elementary and High Schools?" It describes in detail the Hart-Bolton American History Maps. Write for a copy.

Our new catalog No. 5 is also ready and a copy will be gladly sent you. Address your letter to

STANLEY BOWMAR
DENOYER-GEPPERT CO.

1125 Amsterdam Ave. NEW YORK, N. Y.